

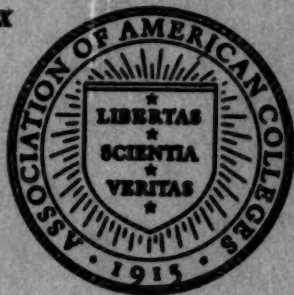
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# ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES BULLETIN

VOLUME XXIX

NUMBER 4



Inter-American Institutes

The American Scholar and the War

Divisional Organization

**DECEMBER, 1943**



# *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*

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Edited by

GUY E. SNAVELY

Executive Director of the Association

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The BULLETIN is published four times a year—in March, May, October and December. Its emphasis is on description and exposition, not primarily on criticism or controversy. The March issue regularly carries the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Association. Leaders in the college world contribute to every issue.

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## EDITORIAL NOTES

**THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES WILL BE HELD ON JANUARY 13-14, 1944 AT THE NETHERLAND PLAZA HOTEL, CINCINNATI, OHIO.**

**MRS. LAURA-MAY SPAIN BROWN**, who has been Editorial Assistant for over four years, resigned on October 1 to take a similar position on the staff of the University of Connecticut where her husband is Instructor in English. In undertaking her new work she has the best wishes of the staff and of the many college presidents who have had the pleasure of meeting her.

**THE NEWLY APPOINTED COMMISSION ON CITIZENSHIP** had its initial meeting, which was well attended, at the Roosevelt Hotel in New York on September 24. Two subcommittee meetings have been held subsequently. In due time some announcements will be forthcoming from the Commission.

**THE COMMISSION ON WARTIME PLACEMENT OF COLLEGE FACULTIES** has been discontinued. It has concluded the work that it had planned. A report by the Executive Secretary of the Commission will be found in this issue of the Bulletin. Gratitude is due members of the Commission and particularly to John F. Sly of the Princeton faculty, who directed the work of the Commission in a supervisory capacity on a voluntary basis.

**COLLEGE REGISTRATION SERVICE** attained quite a success in a great number of areas before the War Department indicated that it might be wise to discontinue its activities for the present. A report of the Service will be found in later pages. Our grateful appreciation has been expressed to Dr. James E. Allen, the former President of Marshall and Davis and Elkins Colleges, for his services as Director of the project.

**THE ALLOCATION OF ARMY AND NAVY UNITS** to the campuses of nearly 500 of our Association members has been

effected with a minimum of delay and friction. In a number of instances, colleges in the same community have cooperated cordially in combining their facilities. A striking illustration prevails in Spartanburg, South Carolina, where the civilian students at Wofford College, an institution for men only, are now doing all their work across town at Converse College, an institution for women only.

**S**INCE THE PASSAGE by the Congress of the SELECTIVE TRAINING AND SERVICE ACT of 1940, the time the colleges first felt the full impact of World War II, not a single accredited standard four-year Liberal Arts College or University has been closed. This is a noteworthy fact. Many prophets of gloom and other philosophers, columnists and orators have been writing and speaking for the past three years about the frailty of the four-year college. Some have adduced statistics on the subject. An analysis of these statistics shows that of the fifty or more institutions of higher education that have succumbed or discontinued temporarily, the most are Junior Colleges or Professional Schools. Only a handful of the latter are first-class ones: these are located in rural areas. It is obvious that high grade law schools connected with State Universities temporarily suspended will open, probably with larger enrollment, immediately after the War.

**T**HE REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON LIBERAL EDUCATION has recently been translated into Spanish and Portuguese for circulation among our neighbor countries in Central and South America. The translations were made by the Pan American Union at their own request. Further interest in the REPORT is indicated by the fact that 5,000 copies have already been sold. Several hundred other copies have been sent to individuals making inquiry about the REPORT. The Summary of the Commission's Report which went out earlier to newspaper editors, persons in public life and many others, was done so well that it has been included among printed pieces accepted for the Ninth Annual Exhibition of Printing in the Commodore, November 1-3, 1943.

**M**ANUAL FOR TRUSTEES OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, by Raymond M. Hughes, is timely, well written and

invaluable for the college trustee, a thousand or more of whom are newly appointed each year. The book outlines in brief form the more important administrative problems which are common to colleges and universities. It will enable trustees to act more effectively. It will magnify and impress the importance of the duties and responsibilities of college and university trustees. The author is eminently equipped for the writing of this edifying monograph because of his highly successful experience as a college administrator, including sixteen years as President of Miami University and eight years as President of Iowa State College. In the early days of the Association of American Colleges he was for three years Secretary-Treasurer; later, for three years Secretary of the American Council on Education and for one year its Chairman. Published by Iowa State College Press, Ames, Iowa.

**THE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES** will hold its Tenth Annual Meeting at Bennett College, Greensboro, North Carolina, on December 9th and 10th.

**THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES** announces that a study has been made on the policy of "Admitting Jewish Students to Junior Colleges." Copies of this study may be obtained from the office of the Executive Secretary, Walter C. Eells, 730 Jackson Place, Washington, 6, D. C.

**WHEN** the material for this Bulletin was sent to press, 359 member colleges had sent in reports on **SUMMER SESSION ENROLLMENTS**. Exclusive of students assigned to colleges by the Army and Navy the total enrollment for these colleges was 152,877 students. Of these civilian students 84,413 were women and 68,464 were men. On comparison with the reports of the enrollments of the summer session a year ago, we find a slight drop in total number enrolled with a decided increase in number of women over men students. A year ago there were considerably more men in the summer term than women. There were fewer colleges reporting no summer sessions this year, although quite a few women's colleges still report that they have no summer school or term.

**NEW TYPE OF VISUAL AIDS CATALOG-DIRECTORY:**

A new and improved type of visual aids catalog-directory entitled, "Slidefilms and Motion Pictures to Help Instructors," is announced by The Jam Handy Organization, 2900 East Grand Blvd., Detroit (11) Michigan, and will be sent free on request to any teacher, school, college, or educational group. By a new system of indexing, cross-indexing and classifying, teaching slidefilms and motion pictures covering a wide range of studies, the teacher is enabled to quickly locate any subject needed by the mere flip of the page. In addition, the teacher seeking suitable films to aid in a given study, gets a "preview" of what is available by means of vivid illustrations of sequences reproduced directly from the film itself. Listings are made under the curriculum system, and it has been found that much time and labor is saved for the instructor who otherwise would be called upon to engage in extensive film research work. This catalog-directory is printed in colors, comprising 80 pages of detailed information—including the number of "frames" or pictures in each slidefilm and in each series. One special feature shows what projectors are best suited to various visualized teaching purposes.

**THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL ASSOCIATION** has received a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation for a Commission on the Function of Philosophy in Liberal Education. The task of the Commission is "to reexamine thoroughly the nature and function of philosophy in higher education and in general culture, and to study ways and means of reorganizing the teaching of philosophy in order to make the contribution of philosophy to the post-war world most effective." In the terms of the grant liberal education is conceived very broadly. It includes not only education in college and university but also the development of a free and reflective life in the community at large. Thus the work of the Commission is to inquire into the general function of philosophy in the life of the individual and society. A number of meetings is planned in different parts of the country where not only members of the profession but also others from different walks of life may discuss what philosophy means at present to the community and what it should mean, especially in the days to come. Both the needs of the plain man



and citizen and the demands of scholarship are to be considered. Studies will also be made of the following questions: recent trends in professional philosophy during the past twenty-five years; the philosophy that reaches the general public through non-professional channels and literature; the relations of philosophy, science and religion; the role of philosophy in schools of education; the content and method of graduate instruction and training in philosophy; the place of philosophy in proposed reconstructions of the liberal arts curriculum. The Commission will bring together the results of all these studies and consultations into a report that should yield a clearer view of the objectives of philosophical study and teaching today. Interested persons are invited to address the Secretary, C. W. Hendel, 327 Hall of Graduate Studies, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.

**CLINCHING THE VICTORY** by Eldon Griffin "is a timely and searching examination of wartime preparations for post-war arrangements. It includes numerous practical suggestions concerning matters of vital importance in the changing domestic life and the challenging external relations of the nation. It deals vigorously and creatively with questions of immediate consequence to every North American and to other United Nations populations." Wilberlilla Publishers, Seattle.

**AMBASSADOR TO INDUSTRY** by Clyde W. Park is the "idea and life of Herman Schneider." This is the story and life work of the late Dean Schneider who was the pioneer in developing the plan for cooperative education of students, giving part of their time to college work and part of their time to actual jobs in industrial concerns. The romance of his life career is inspirational. The book is full of information for all interested in the Cooperative Plan. Published by Bobbs-Merrill Company, New York.

**MOBILIZING EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES** *For Winning the War and the Peace*, edited by Ernest O. Melby: "Representative educational authorities here give timely, constructive consideration to the present need of a national clearing house for



the use of educational resources by numerous government war agencies and the inevitable need for some national leadership in educational policy and support. Everyone interested in how the post-war period policies requiring national unity in education can be reconciled with assurances of local autonomy, are sure to find this volume of intense interest." Published by Harper & Brothers, New York.

**NEW SCHOOLS FOR A NEW CULTURE**, *Experimental Applications for Tomorrow*, by Charles M. MacConnell, Ernest O. Melby and Christian O. Arndt. "This book tells the encouraging and exciting story of the conspicuous success of a pioneer experiment in high school education conducted since 1937 at the New School, Evanston, Ill., and in which the interest of the country's leading educators has been keen, hopeful and favorable. The authors contend that public education has failed to meet the democratic challenge by providing the educational environment and teaching methods essential to the very existence of our democracy. And they show what the New School has done at the secondary school level to 'explore the values of democracy, teach its processes, and establish habits and attitudes' which produce good citizens for America." Harper and Brothers, New York, is the publisher.

**THE YEARBOOK OF PHILANTHROPY 1942-43** edited by John Price Jones brings some interesting information and valuable statistics covering American philanthropy since the year 1920. College administrative officers will be interested in this brochure. It contains important charts and tables. The Inter-River Press, New York.

**THE EDUCATION OF NURSES** "is designed primarily for professional students and workers in the field of nursing education." It is also intended "to provide a general orientation for non-nursing groups who are becoming increasingly interested in this branch of education and aware of their responsibilities in relation to it." The author is Isabel Maitland Stewart, R.N., A.M., Professor of Nursing Education and Director of the Division of Nursing Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. The Macmillan Company, New York.

**H**ERE is a convincing argument on the value of liberal education—an excerpt from a letter of a recent alumnus of Washington College to President Gilbert W. Mead:

Strangely enough, I must confess that my attitude toward Liberal Arts in the early years of my college was just contrary to my present ideas. Although I never spoke much of it, in my first two years I entertained a feeling of contempt for those professors who were always emphasizing the enlightening values of the arts courses. I found it quite difficult to understand why it was necessary for a student to be required to take two full years of English, History, Economics, Social Sciences, while only one year of a Science was necessary to complete a course at Washington College. Being a Science student, naturally I was biased. But as time has passed, I feel that I have matured. My present outlook on education is entirely different, and now I realize more than ever the necessity of such things as the Classics, Art, and Philosophy. I don't see how an educated person can be happy without them.

## SOME CHANGES IN THE COLLEGES OF TOMORROW

ROBERT LINCOLN KELLY

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR EMERITUS, ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES

IT is the consensus of the experts that there will probably soon be an announcement by the Government that, when the time comes, industry will be allowed to be reconverted without dislocation or undue delays to the manufacture of civilian goods. We may assume that this careful forecast, carefully arrived at and duly devoid of engaging certitude, is to apply to all forms of industry, even to the college industry of manufacturing souls. There is still further need to watch your step, because there are certain to be changes both coming and going. The changes *going* will be in the direction of Harding's "back to normalcy," but if we can learn by experience they will not go so far. The colleges will not be permanently militarized except as and if—to be referred to a little later. But the changes *coming* are the ones with which we are now concerned.

One of France's distinguished psychologists, Gustave Le Bon, is of the opinion that men are guided by two sets of belief—personal and impersonal. Impersonal beliefs are the product of intelligent thinking based upon scientific deductions and observation; and since their basis can be clearly expounded, they are usually accepted by thinking people without controversy. Personal beliefs are independent judgments which, in a rapidly changing world, are subject to infection which may become virulent—as for instance in the case of "Modern Art."

This discussion attempts to deal with what Le Bon is disposed to call impersonal beliefs, although it must be confessed they are, for the most part, personally arrived at. My main thesis here, then, is the same as that of my latest book<sup>1</sup> which appeared in the fall of 1940, namely, that the primary function of American colleges is to assist in promoting the general welfare.

The transformation of the curriculum of the college during the last three years has been more nearly complete than during any other period of similar length since Harvard was founded. This

<sup>1</sup> *The American Colleges and the Social Order*. New York: Macmillan, 1940.

has led critics and even administrators with short memories to make the deduction that the colleges of the past have been completely "liquidated." According to them, all old things have passed away and all things have become, or will become, new. The fallacy of this deduction lies in its confusion of the content with the function. Our reply to this confusion is, "The liberal colleges are not dead—Long live the liberal colleges!" The fact is that the transformations of the past three years have served to bring into relief more clearly than ever before the ultimate function of the colleges as already stated. Our main thesis can be seen more clearly now and can be stated with more assurance than in 1940, or in 1924, when my lectures at the Sorbonne<sup>2</sup> were delivered, by way of an interpretation of the same phrase in the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States—"To promote the general welfare."

Since we humans learn by contrast to admire the beauties that enchain us, the Generalissimo of China, seven thousand miles away, but with the immediate opportunity of testing the capacity of a few liberally educated men and women of his own race, has consistently held to the practice of granting priority to Chinese youth who wish to serve their native land by securing a college education. So the independent colleges there, with reduced equipment and weakened faculty personnel, are none-the-less enrolling more students than ever before. Quite recently the Chinese Government, in spite of the horrors of war and the pressure of war expenses, has granted bonuses to faculty members who heroically stand at their posts of duty—the longer they continue to teach, the greater the bonus.

Perhaps we in the United States were excusable for attempting to create new colleges to educate for new duties. At least we thought we could afford to do this for the duration, since we have so large a reserve of liberally educated citizens, tested and tried in the business of policy making as well as of administrative techniques.

#### THE HIGHER MATHEMATICS

In this situation we get our most immediate suggestion as to the nature of the colleges of tomorrow and the day after. We shall

<sup>2</sup> *Tendencies in College Administration*. Lancaster, Pa.: The Science Press, 1925.

reserve a large place in the curriculum of those colleges for the higher mathematics and, by inference, without attempting to enumerate them, for the many sciences old and new for which mathematics furnish the base. There must be mathematics for the millions. Let all this be summed up in the eloquent understatement made concerning the president of a great American corporation: "He knows how to add and subtract." As the higher mathematics continue to be applied by our research workers within an almost infinite number of fields, as the boundaries of knowledge are extended, and as the means of human achievement as well as of human happiness are disclosed, the colleges will teach also how to multiply and how to divide. Indeed, the corporation referred to has long ago learned how to do both of these things. It has been multiplying its funds, in spite of the depression. Its main business is to divide. Without presuming to preach, it has been demonstrating in a grand way that it is more blessed to give than to receive. In a most realistic fashion it has been for years laying the groundwork for a just and durable peace—within the minds and hearts of men.

If a just and durable peace is to be made—and to make and maintain such a peace is infinitely harder to do than to make war—we must learn, ourselves, and must teach the world how to give; this is how education becomes and remains liberal. Liberal education is the education that gives.

That the sciences in this higher sense are liberal is evidenced by the well-tested fact that science knows no political boundaries. The truth which science seeks to discover and disclose is universal. No nation or race has a monopoly on the scientific method. Until men cease to be devoted to that which is true the sciences, old and new, will retain a large place in the college curriculum.

It is quite safe to predict, furthermore, in spite of the threat to its extinction that pure science has faced because of the urgent demand for technical applications, that the sacred flame has not been put out. It has only been dimmed. Inspired scholars and researchers will again demonstrate that they are incurably curious. The steady march of the scientific conquest of the forces of nature will continue, with undoubted acceleration. If those who doubt interject the inevitable question right at the beginning—"Where is the money to come from?" at least two answers

are ready at hand. The colonial colleges did not have much money. The Chinese colleges have none. Like the "Founding Fathers" and also the Founding Chinese, we will tomorrow be creating a new era in higher education.

### THE HIGHER POLITICS

Aristotle asserted that man is incurably political. Yet it has been hard for the politicians, the diplomats, even the statesmen, to grasp the lesson of liberal learning. The colleges must and will help to teach this to all of them. It is to some a startling but none-the-less a true observation that here in the land of the free, of all places, many of our most notorious political bosses have been college trained. Note that I cautiously say "have been"! One reason why the colleges have produced corrupt political leaders is because they have not taught to all their students the facts of American politics and diplomacy.

Away back in the early days of Harvard, a student named Samuel Adams wrote a thesis for the Master's degree which was a first step in the making of the Father of the American Revolution. He was, however, working on his own. He was not taking a college course in American politics. Such diffusion of knowledge of American history within the schools as there has been since the early days has been for the most part in the hands of secondary school teachers. The colleges must not only teach American politics. They must also inspire their students to "get out the vote."

The post-war colleges will take American history seriously or our democracy will perish. They must possess, or be possessed by, the prophetic spirit. They must not merely adapt themselves to the forthcoming social order, the "new world order"; they must guide in the formation of this order. Indeed, they should be doing this now.<sup>3</sup>

A newspaper man, albeit a college man, has just reminded us that with the exception of the Monroe Doctrine the United States never has had a foreign policy, and that such a policy is sorely needed now. His book<sup>4</sup> will become a reference book in the new

<sup>3</sup> Since this was written the Association of American Colleges has appointed a notable commission to grapple with this new development.

<sup>4</sup> *United States Foreign Policy*. Walter Lippmann. New York: Little, Brown & Co., 1943.



department of politics in our colleges. It is definite. It is factual. It is conservative. But it does not speak the last word. It offers no cure, but only the prescription of force implemented by alliances for the political ills of mankind. The colleges must find some better way. Alexander Hamilton offered the federal principle to a weak and ineffective government as a means of clarifying the chaotic condition in which the thirteen colonies had been enmeshed. Hamilton's prescription worked. The higher politics requires mutual concessions as to sovereignty among progressive nations, a spirit of cooperation and superstate agencies—legislative, executive and judicial—for the attainment of the permanent peace of the world.

This sort of peace, openly and honestly arrived at, in due humility, may accomplish what the balancing of power has never accomplished and never will. It is so easy to upset the equilibrium. Just move the fulcrum an inch or two. Our State Department is offering blueprints for such a government of the people, by the people, for the people, of good will. No one can say that the persistent study of this problem by the various existing agencies of international relations and by the churches throughout the land has not helped to prepare the way for the generous suggestions of Under Secretary of State Welles.

The history of America and of the world is going to be in the making on a grand scale during the next few generations. Here is subject matter supremely interesting and vital for the colleges of tomorrow. How to become a citizen of the United States and of the world. How to comprehend even in some measure the political problems of the globe. How to avoid those types of propaganda withal, which have recently been isolated and stigmatized as "globaloney." What a way to promote the general welfare! Do this and the Ivory Towers which have so plagued the colleges in the past will rapidly disintegrate.

As a preliminary textbook for this course in the higher politics, let *Glimpses of World History* be adopted: a marvelous interpretation, written with "incredible scholarship and skill," as Nicholas Murray Butler has declared, by that philosopher and political leader of India, Jawaharlal Nehru. This is the Nehru who voices the aspiration of a people occupying two million square miles of the earth's surface—the aspiration to be free.



To comprehend the vastness of the areas now dedicated to the democratic ideal, add to these two million square miles the almost three million square miles of Canada, the three million square miles of the United States, the three and one-quarter million square miles of Brazil, the three and three-quarters million square miles of Holland and France, the four and one-half million square miles of China, and throw in for good measure the territory of the Latin American states which, far from leaving the intellectual life behind as they fared forth for freedom, founded universities in the centuries before our first universities were founded, and later developed separate and independent states based, legally at least, on constitutions fashioned after that of the United States of North America.

#### THE HIGHER GEOGRAPHY

But we seem to be encroaching upon the territory of the higher geography. It would seem that the higher mathematics, the higher politics, and the higher geography are inevitably disposed to coalesce. Certainly geography has become global too, not only in extent but in spirit and in truth. It has taken geography some centuries to catch up with Columbus. We are beginning to learn that a flat map, without intention but none the less inevitably and perpetually distorts the truth about the surface of the earth. We are beginning to look over the top of the earth. We are beginning to see how intricate are the relationships of geography. We are beginning to achieve the global perspective not only with reference to the length and breadth of territory which measure distance, not only with reference to latitude and longitude and the diversifications of terrain with mountains and valleys, rivers and lakes and seas, cities and farm lands, but at last with reference to currents and cross currents of travel and transportation, the highways of steel and concrete, the sea lanes and the air lanes. After a few years of the most intense study of global geography our people have ever engaged in, it will be little less than criminal if we do not capitalize in our colleges this widespread interest and knowledge. Logistics, since Pearl Harbor, has taken on new and enriched content.

Today we have a strikingly accentuated object lesson before us as to some of the hidden meanings of geography. The government of Argentina is emboldened to stand out against all the

other states of North and South America in its attitude toward the cause of the United Nations. It has what it considers a good and sufficient reason for its stand, because Germany has been furnishing it the means by which it lives. Geographical conditions in the last analysis determine its position. The United States is too far away. The distance has prevented thus far the mutual accommodation of resources and products and cultures, the mutual understanding, the intellectual and spiritual sense of unity. It is the business of colleges to comprehend the *One World* conception. We are making a start at this problem. We have already incorporated physical geography into geography. We know something of political geography, which up to date has taken an unfortunate turn in geopolitics—interpreted as power-politics. We have some conception—better say many conceptions—of economic geography whose watchword is not to be *Power* but *Opportunity*. Science has placed the machinery for this new conception in our hands. In that respect we are prepared now. For the field work in the course in the higher geography students may take the wings of the morning and, within sixty hours or less, may fly to the uttermost parts of the earth, with the multiplying instruments of precision with which to record data for their reports. This was what Wendell Willkie did, to the enlightenment and enrichment of the minds and hearts of several million American citizens. Herein will be found the broadest basis for the study of the humanities that will thus far have been achieved. When the writer was a boy preparing for college, in a midwestern state, he could not conceive that in his life he would have a vital need for an easy reading and speaking knowledge of other languages than his own. Provincialism is dying hard even in the schools and colleges. It is through the human touch that we will bring abstract philosophy and politics and economics down to the good earth. And we shall do this all the way along, from the geography of the stratosphere—which is already guiding aerial traffic and has gone far beyond the traditional means of weather prediction—down to the complicated geography of human and cultural relationships.

I think this is not one of Le Bon's personal beliefs. I think it is not a voice crying in the wilderness. May I quote, side by side,

the recent assertions of two college presidents. The first is the president of a liberal college:

The extraordinary aptitude for the development of our technical skills, the high specialization of our scientific thought, should be balanced by some like solicitude for humanistic culture or our civilization will never get beyond efficiency.

The second is the president of a well-known polytechnical institute:

One day the engineer is to rebuild this devastated world. If with his technical skill, he possesses also the capacity for culture, there will arise a world of beauty.

#### THE HIGHER ARTS

A world of beauty! So our world of mathematics is to coalesce with the world of art. When the colleges of the future are once more organized to teach the old and new subjects and objects of civilization, in the light of expanding knowledge, they will have made a good beginning. Knowledge must find expression. This requires skill. Knowledge and skill must go hand in hand. Any honest friend and critic of the colleges will admit their tendency to one-sided development. Out of such development has arisen the current contempt of the professor! The present war has given us a costly lesson in the inadequacy of scholarship devoid of skill in achievement in the work-a-day world.

But this analysis does not go far enough. The shibboleths of expression, of performance, of achievement—the German regime had these to a degree that startled and shocked the world. That regime led to the suicide of the German universities and Germany's present educational program is facing final collapse, as we hope and believe. There was a time when American education was captivated by the German way. The American book on Universities which has reached the largest circulation held to the view that in reality there were no real universities except German universities. It exhorted us to cease making hollow pretensions and follow the German way. At last we know that the German way was not the right way. There was a time when Augustus Saint Gaudens, with his architects McKim, Mead and White, at their own expense, took down the "Diana" from the

tower of Madison Square Garden and, after it had been "permanently" installed, remodeled it in accordance with their more mature idea of correct proportions. President Eliot declared Saint Gaudens was an artist who was willing to spend whatever "number of mortal years it takes to mould immortal forms." America needs to sit at the feet of her artists, her poets, her musicians, her religious leaders. These also have a lesson for the colleges, which the colleges usually have been and still are reluctant to accept.

"The fact of the business is," to borrow an oft repeated dictum of Lippmann which he may have copyrighted for all I know "mankind, also, is inevitably artistic and religious." We hear and read many grand phrases describing the high plane of social advance and the profound revolution in democratic processes for which the war is being fought. These come from legislators, and even from many educational leaders who attempt to peer into the future. The prescription, when prescription is offered, usually consists of some technical economic, political or legal reform. It is certain that such changes are desirable. But the personal and social goals of our colleges are and must remain our profound concern. They are by no means as definite and clear-cut as those of German and Japanese education. In comparison they are vague, uncertain, not readily understandable. Again, the dictatorships have had a dynamic, vigorous program of procedure. What is the dynamic of the American colleges? They should reflect and illustrate the dynamic of the American people. Information, knowledge, scholarship, however trustworthy, do not offer this dynamic. There is a life of the American people which is above economics, politics, law. Briefly stated, this is the life of the spirit. With Lincoln it was the moral law. It is the universal language of art, of music, of morals, of religion. It is the urge to put your knowledge to use. We have a test just now as to the urge of the American people. The current best sellers in both fiction and non-fiction are books dealing with the ultimate issues of life and brotherhood. The leader in fiction is *The Robe*. The leader in non-fiction is *One World*. The runners-up in both classes are books with kindred motives.

German authorities have not hesitated to boast of their religion, their bible, their god, who wrote the bible. Well, the Jewish-

Christian Bible is always the world's best seller. Since Pearl Harbor it has had a tremendous boom in the United States. One publisher reports the shipment of 1,642,000 copies, the first five months of the year, with unfilled orders for another million. All this is through normal trade channels. It does not take account of Government orders. The American Bible Society in 1942 produced the largest volume of Scriptures in its history. It reports the total in all languages of over 8,000,000, with the United States taking over 5,000,000. "Much has been said regarding the high military and economic quality of the American war effort. Here is a revealing commentary on its moral and spiritual quality."<sup>5</sup>

While I was attempting to interpret the significance of the American spirit Thomas Mann's article entitled "Kindness" came to my hand. I have not asked this magazine, much less Thomas Mann or *Good Housekeeping*, for leave to print this article in full here. But please note at least a few sentences from a man who is universally acclaimed as among our leading contemporary interpreters of human character in general, and of American character in particular. His view is objective and all the more trustworthy for that.

The pursuit of happiness—a strangely daring thought, which never could have found its way into a state document in the old Europe; it is a specifically American statement, born from the spirit of kindness—an idea inspired by faith in social progress, in the duty to better the conditions of life on earth. . . . Despite all antagonism and differences of conviction which naturally divide even this country into competing camps, the clean, benevolent and spiritually sound principles of the moral code of conduct upon which the Union originally was established by the Fathers, still are alive and decisive here; they form the legend of this two-hundred-year-old community, the national tradition. If one wants to condense this deep-seated tradition into one short modest word, the language of the land offers the word "Kindness." The Americanization of the world, in a certain moral sense, would be a good piece of fortune for mankind.<sup>6</sup>

#### THE HIGHER DISCIPLINE

Note Mann's phrase, "in a certain moral sense." Is that a commendation or a challenge? Above all things, the colleges of

<sup>5</sup> New York *Herald-Tribune*, Editorial, August 23, 1943.

<sup>6</sup> Thomas Mann, "Kindness," *Good Housekeeping*, September, 1943.



the new era must cast aside the spirit of complacency. They need the warning from the great teacher of morality, Paul, not to think more highly of themselves than they ought to think. It is significant that Mann delivered his message through *Good House-keeping*. The colleges must help to put our houses in order—domestic, social, political, economic, national, international—particularly educational. Without the background of a stiffer morality in the home and in the school, the colleges will make slow progress.

Undue optimism is an intoxicating form of complacency. Lest we forget, we should recall that after November 11, 1918, America became thus intoxicated. The school administrators of the United States met in Chicago and again in Milwaukee some months after the Armistice to plan a new educational program. An enthusiastic Peace Convention was held in Chicago in 1919 under the joint auspices of the Council of Church Board of Education and the Association of American Colleges. At one of these meetings a speaker cried, "Imperialism as a world force is dead!" The United States Commissioner of Education declared, "All isolations, splendid or otherwise, are gone forevermore." A forecast of a different kind was hazarded by a third speaker:

The Great War was a cunningly contrived conspiracy carried to its tragic climax through an educational system. Another variety of educational cunning might enable Germany again to become a menace to mankind. Unless . . . the children of all free men are trained effectively in all those habits and arts that make for national solidarity and strength, for international sympathy and understanding, the safety of civilization cannot be guaranteed, even by a League of Nations. A world half educated will be only half free.<sup>7</sup>

Do not forget that this prediction was made in 1919. But we did immediately forget. Now that we have another chance the clarion call comes for American education to snap out of its slouchiness. Progressive Education should be constrained to reinterpret the theory and practice of interest, with adequate emphasis on its social as well as its personal content. Students must also feel the stiffening power of discipline—eventually, of course, of self-discipline. Kindness, complacency, optimism, in-

<sup>7</sup> Educational Policies Commission. *Education and the People's Peace*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., May, 1943.

initiative must not be allowed to degenerate into softness. It is none too soon to begin to put on the whole armor of a social as well as a personal defense and offense. This war is not yet won. Our destinies still hang in the balance. Our hardest battles are before us, both in war and in peace.

A climate of peace is best suited to educational effort. But sometimes a comfortable peace forgets the motto of a West Point—Honor, Duty, Country. To paraphrase Theodore Roosevelt's oft repeated declaration: Warm-heartedness is not synonymous with soft-headedness.

Some good results should follow the present era of partial militarization of the colleges. There should be a new birth of discipline. College students to begin with should learn how to stand up and walk. Discipline of the body, of itself, will help the discipline of the mind and heart.

The colleges should be instant to see that this spirit of discipline is carried over into the peace which is to follow when the forces of evil are dethroned. There must eventually be an international police force, at the command of the Executive branch of the new federation of nations. There must be external united discipline for those nations who are unwilling or unable to conform to the demands of civilization. The federal power must be applied, on an international scale, to aggressor nations. The peace-loving nations must squash future Hitlers in the larval stage. No single nation can do this. To this end the colleges must share in the development of adequate leadership, they will be loyal to their own state, the federated state and to one another. They will retain their reserved area of freedom. The call is for crusaders in this high endeavor. Only those willing to serve, on hard conditions, as good soldiers should be called to administrative and teaching positions. The struggle will be one of life or death.

"But now . . .

Now (they) must take the glorious and tremendous task upon (them).

(They) must start building.

When this is done, perhaps they shall have time to die—

But not now"<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> *Harpers Magazine*, September, 1943.



## WHAT DOES FREEDOM MEAN?

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**W**HAT does Freedom mean? Today this question is being asked in every part of the world. A most violent, widespread and exhausting war to destroy Freedom and to prevent its restoration is now being waged on every continent and on every ocean. A determined effort on the part of the American people to preserve, to protect and to strengthen the power of Freedom is the ruling purpose and aspiration not only of our own people, but of all those who in any part of the world are in alliance with them. It is, therefore, of commanding importance that we should clearly understand what Freedom means, because it is for Freedom that we are making the appalling sacrifices which cost so much both in human life and in the earnings and savings of our people for generations. What then does Freedom mean?

For some three hundred years in the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries this question was asked and debated first by philosophers, theologians, intellectual leaders and statesmen and later by large numbers of people of all classes throughout Europe and such part of the Americas as had then been settled. A chief obstacle to the development and establishment of Freedom lay in the influence of the feudal system. This system had in its time performed an important service for Europe, but had outlived its usefulness and become the foundation for economic discrimination and unfairness, such as the steadily developing modern mind would not permit. This explains the succession of revolutions in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. These were first those in Great Britain and then in the American colonies and in France. When these three great revolutions had been accomplished, the ruling question was how to define Freedom in detail, how to establish it in respect to cooperative and governmental action and how to protect it from attack from without and from undermining from within. The peoples of Great Britain, of the American colonies and of France then believed that, to all intents

NOTE: An address delivered at the Parrish Memorial Art Museum, Southampton, Long Island, September 5, 1943.

and purposes, they had accomplished these aims. Of such vital importance did this matter seem to the people of the newly organized United States of America, that they did not even accept their own republican Federal Constitution as wholly adequate, but insisted upon adding to it its first ten amendments which constitute the Bill of Rights.

It did not occur to any of the leaders in these revolutions, particularly the American revolution, that the time would ever again come when the foundations of Freedom itself would be once more attacked and its very existence threatened. Of course it was understood that interpretations of Freedom might vary and that from time to time political, economic and social differences would arise as to matters of detail. What never entered the minds of the founders of the American republic was the possibility that within one hundred and fifty years Freedom, as a fundamental principle, would be denied and contested with the purpose of substituting for it a form of unrestricted dictatorship, the fierceness and cruelty of which make the feudal system seem moderate indeed. Yet this is precisely what has happened. Since, therefore, we Americans are today sacrificing our lives and everything we possess in defense of Freedom, we must reflect upon that word and come to see clearly what we mean by it and just what it involves.

Public attention throughout the world has been given to the latest and very important definition of Freedom which was agreed upon by the President of the United States and the Prime Minister in the government of Great Britain and contained in a message to Congress on January 6, 1941. This now famous declaration, considered with the so-called Atlantic Charter, may well be the starting point in any present-day discussion of what Freedom means. This statement says that Freedom today presents itself in four phases. It declares that there must be Freedom of Speech and Expression, Freedom of Worship, Freedom from Want and Freedom from Fear. To these four Freedoms, if the definition is to be complete, there must certainly be added a fifth—the Freedom of Individual Enterprise. All five of these aspects of Freedom are either denied, restricted, or openly opposed by those forces of reaction and cruelty which have forced the Allied powers to defend themselves in this war. If civilization

is to continue, this war must be won. The war having been won, foundations must be laid for the rebuilding of this broken and shattered world in terms of true and lasting Freedom. All five of these forms of Freedom relate not only to the individual man but to the economic, the social and the political organization of all free countries in the world, whether large or small.

Freedom of Speech, which includes of course Freedom of the Press, is generally well understood. It means that no man is to be deprived of the right to express his opinions or his judgment, however unpopular these may be, or however widely they may differ from those of other men. It does not mean the right to teach immorality, disorder or crime. He who cannot refrain from doing any one of these things in the exercise of his right to free speech is not on that moral plane which all free men must reach, in order to be really free and to understand their Freedom. It is often difficult not to resent the use of free speech because of much that is said and written, but it is far better to tolerate it than to attempt to suppress it. Out of the use of free speech should grow its constantly better use.

Freedom of Worship has been indeed difficult to attain and even now is by no means established as widely or as completely as it should be. From the very beginnings of the history of the Western World, religious persecution has manifested itself, sometimes with great violence and over wide areas. Some of these forms of persecution, particularly that of the Jews, are racial as well as religious. That such persecution is cruel and heartless should go without saying. There has also been in the United States a persecution of members of the Roman Catholic Church and particularly those individuals who have become candidates for public office. This has been done by a shocking organization known as the Ku Klux Klan. That this organization has faded into the background during the last few years is welcome news indeed. There remain minor forms of religious persecution, or what amounts to that, on the part of some of the various Protestant denominations. Frequently we have seen evidence that some members of these organizations are more concerned with their dislike and even hatred of those who differ from them as to church organization and form of religious worship than they are in the fundamental articles of their common faith. The essen-

tials of the Christian religion are to be found in the three most important documents which history records: the Ten Commandments, the Lord's Prayer and the Apostles' Creed. He who accepts these and believes in them is a Christian, whatever may be his preference for form of worship or church organization. Religious freedom will not have been fully achieved until these fundamental facts and principles are realized and acted upon.

Freedom from Want is a relatively new principle of social and economic life. It has been usual to allow those in need, however desperate, to depend solely upon private charity, or upon some form of public organization which took extraordinary cases of want under its care. Freedom from Want involves, however, much more than this. It means that in a modern democratic state everyone young or old, strong or weak, should be made to feel that he will not be permitted to suffer from Want, since to protect and to care for him are fundamental functions of any organized social order, based upon moral principles. As yet, we are only beginning to find a solution of the problem of Want as it presents itself in the social order of today. Much thought is being given to this subject, and here and there some practical action is being taken. We have still, however, a long distance to go before a wise and sound and fair solution of the problem of Want is arrived at. It may be presented by reason of old age, by reason of illness, of physical incapacity or incompetence, or by reason of circumstances over which an individual has no direct control. It is quite certain that this aspect of Freedom will occupy the attention of men more and more in the near future until the wise and practical solution of the problem has been found.

Freedom from Fear means that there must be a way to protect the weak from danger of attack and humiliation by the strong. This applies to individuals as well as to nations. He who has a powerful mind or a strong body or an influential economic position must not be permitted so to conduct himself that his weaker neighbor is in fear of discrimination or humiliation. There can be no satisfactory working world organization until every nation, however small, is made fully conscious of its independence and its Freedom and protected in its exercise of that Freedom. From one point of view this Freedom is a question of morals. From

another it is a question of mere brute force and its use against the weak. The highest type of political organization which has yet been achieved, namely, the Federal Union of the United States, shows clearly how this may be accomplished. The small states of Rhode Island and Delaware are as safe and as self-governing as are the large states of New York, Texas and California. Just this same relationship must exist in that world organization toward which we are so steadily moving. There will be a United States of America, there will be a British Commonwealth of Nations, there will be a Russia, and there will be a China, but there will also be a Czechoslovakia, a Yugoslavia and a Greece and a Portugal, just as there will be on this side of the Atlantic a Paraguay, a Uruguay and a Bolivia all looking out upon the great area, resources and population of a Brazil. This relationship, like so many others, rests fundamentally upon sound moral principles. Freedom from Fear once assured will aid every nation in developing a prosperous, well educated and useful population.

We come now to the fifth Freedom, Freedom of Individual Enterprise, which is the most important of all. This fifth Freedom is in reality the cornerstone of the foundation upon which the other four Freedoms must rest. It recognizes that the individual human body, the individual human intellect and the individual human soul are fundamental and the moving and guiding forces in any form of true civilization. Making allowance for differences of heredity and of environment, the life of every individual has its beginning in the cradle. Where will that life end? The answer will be found in the fact that every human being must himself give reply to this question, by the use which he is able to make of the years of his life whatever his environment or whatever his opportunities may be. No individual must be looked upon as a member of a permanent class or group. He must be free to move about as he likes economically, socially and politically. He must be free to make the most of all opportunities which are offered to him and to shape his life with all the intelligence which he possesses with a view to advancing not only his own welfare but the interests of his fellow men and those of the civilization which he shares with them. It is to the people of these United States that this modern world may well look for



commanding and convincing illustration of the meaning of this fifth Freedom. The army private of today is the major general of tomorrow. He who begins his life as a manual worker or as a clerk may, as we well know, come to wield large influence and authority as an administrator, an organizer of men and of industry. This is the secret of true progress. Given the fifth Freedom, then the other four Freedoms take their place as part of the life of every free man.

Most of what the free man does to advance himself in life is done in cooperation with his like-minded fellow men. The corporation in the field of industry, of finance, of education or elsewhere has long been a most effective instrumentality in enabling individuals to cooperate in the public service. The man of small means cannot possibly take any part in the organization and development of industry or of finance save by associating himself with a group of other men through becoming a stockholder in a corporation whose purpose is of great public benefit. By holding shares in a well managed corporation the individual of small means will have opportunity to cooperate effectively in shaping and developing the economic life of the American people, particularly in the fields of production and transportation.

There is an insurmountable barrier between voluntary and compulsory cooperation with one's fellow men. The latter is inconsistent with the fifth Freedom and violates both the principles and the ideals of modern democracy. Persuasive and convincing argument is one thing, but compulsion whether by threat or by force is a very different thing. The free man will eagerly seek the one and will turn his back upon the other. To put any individual human being in the chains of an organization of this kind closes to him the door of opportunity.

In our modern society there is but one form of equality. That is equality before the law. Men have always differed and will always continue to differ in health, in strength and in mental power, in personal relationships as well as in opportunities, in efficiency and in practical ability. It is imperative that each individual be trained and encouraged to take advantage of the opportunities which are open to him and to make the most of them. Some will gain large personal influence, some large fortunes, some high repute in letters or in science, in art or in music,



while others will develop administrative capacity which will enable them to organize and to guide the combined efforts of themselves and of others toward the accomplishment of a definite and constructive purpose. All these are manifestations of the fifth Freedom of Individual Enterprise. As society develops and as intelligence and insight strengthen and multiply, it is of commanding importance that the family, the school and the church unite in the exercise of those constructive educational influences and methods which will give increasing significance to the Freedom of Individual Enterprise as each generation comes to maturity.

The American conception of a democratically organized and administered society is definitely recorded in the Declaration of Independence and in the Federal Constitution with its Bill of Rights. Both great documents were written by free men who accomplished through them wholeheartedly and with satisfaction an end, the influence and significance of which have steadily increased as the years have passed. Straight thinking in respect to these fundamental principles makes it perfectly clear that Freedom is not the creation of government, but that Freedom sets up government to be its servant and so defines its organization and limitations that government may be the instrument of Freedom in moving toward the accomplishment of its high aims. There can be no greater fallacy than to assume that in a democratic society government comes first and that Freedom exists incidentally and afterward. Precisely the opposite is the fact. Moreover, it is of vital importance that government be guided and controlled by the voice of the entire people whose government it is. It must never be guided and controlled by organized and self-seeking groups working only for their own advantage and authority. In the modern social and economic order there is constant, almost continuing, war between public opinion and the public will on the one hand and highly organized, self-seeking pressure groups on the other. Nothing could more certainly or more completely undermine democracy than if it were possible to displace the power of public opinion by the influence and power of self-seeking groups.

Public opinion, particularly in the United States, is sometimes very patient, often too patient. Before expressing itself with

clearness and emphasis it frequently hesitates until governmental acts and policies to which it objects have done no small damage. When this public opinion is ready to express itself, however, it does so in its own most emphatic way. The political history of the past fifty years abounds in illustrations of this fact. The executive and legislative departments of government, whether State or Federal, are made directly responsible to public opinion by reason of frequent elections. It is in connection with these elections that selfish and well organized pressure groups so often attempt to gain advantage under the guise of claiming to express public opinion. Time and time again a certain measure of success has attended these efforts, usually in the selection of members of the legislative branch of government. If and when there are two highly organized political parties, one liberal and one conservative, we have the almost ideal organization for the choice and carrying on of governmental policies by public opinion. The conservative and the liberal represent the two fundamental types of human thinking in respect to public affairs. The conservative would move very slowly making few, if any, changes in existing institutions and practices. The liberal would be looking forward for ways of making men happier and more comfortable and government more efficient, even at the cost of changing, sometimes in large degree, the details of the organization and practice of government itself. When the conservative holds back too hard and too long, the liberal wins in the next election. When the liberal goes forward too rapidly and without good judgment, the conservative displaces him in public opinion and gets a new chance to express himself. All these happenings are part of the fifth Freedom. They and they alone can establish, maintain and express democratic principles and accomplish progress. They and they alone can assure that form of progress which means order, justice and true liberty. Therefore, it is the fact that the fifth Freedom, the Freedom of Individual Enterprise, is, as has been already said, the keystone of the arch on which the other four Freedoms rest. This is what Freedom means.

It is this true conception of Freedom which must guide and shape those policies of international understanding and international cooperation to which men will turn when the world-wide war now raging has been won by the forces of liberty. These

same principles which within a democratic nation give guidance to personal and national conduct and life will also give guidance and direction to the life of those free nations which must cooperate not only to win this war, but to establish a new world organization to promote economic prosperity and to insure and protect international peace. It is important that the minds of men should be fixed upon these fundamental principles and not be permitted to wander hither and yon in the discussion of minor and often trivial problems of national and international policy. It must be made clear to the smaller, but highly self-conscious nations, that their safety and independence are to be as secure as are those of the great nations having vast populations and almost unlimited wealth.

All peoples must come to understand that the fundamental doctrines contained in the American Declaration of Independence and in the Federal Constitution with its Bill of Rights, apply to nations, whether great or small, which participate in a world organization, as well as to individuals living under a single government. It is upon Freedom that the minds of men must be fixed, but that Freedom must be so well defined and so clearly understood that all nations can and will move forward in cooperation toward its establishment and protection with confidence and with satisfaction. It may well be that when peace comes it will be found desirable to propose and to urge migration from one part of the world to another. In the years to come it may prove to be useful and helpful if still sparsely settled parts of the continents of Asia, of Africa and of the Americas should increase their populations in order to multiply their productive economic capacity and development and to relieve pressure elsewhere. It might well prove to be that a new and carefully organized Exodus would result in a new and most helpful Genesis.

Confidence is what human nature needs for happiness and prosperity, and confidence is what a modern democratic nation needs for independence and political and economic accomplishment. Therefore, it is that confidence in a wisely guided, a clearly conceived and a well defended Freedom which is the essential need of this twentieth-century world as it looks forward to the years which are to follow.

It was Confucius who said that men cannot work together unless they have common principles.

## THE AMERICAN SCHOLAR AND THE WAR

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IT is important in considering the present plight of the humanities, to distinguish between short-term and long-term issues. The American scholar who feels aggrieved, or humiliated, because his country, in an emergency of the first magnitude, calls for technologists, engineers, statisticians, economists, rather than humanists, historians and interpreters of culture, should cease mopping his forehead. It has never been and never will be the business of the scholar, the man of letters or the humanist, to prepare for the machinery of war, though he has often recognized inevitability in a good cause, and given the ideology which has made a war successful in history as well as triumphant in combat. In so far as he is an instrument of civilization—and why is he a scholar in the humanities if he is not?—his primary duty might be said to prepare for such wisdom as may eventually eliminate the curse and crime of aggressive, predatory war.

So much for the short-term issue, but in the long view his responsibilities are greater, and his record by no means clean and clear. The adjective Alexandrian was long ago applied to erudition for the sake of erudition, learning for the sake of being learned. I would suggest that the sting of this reproach has been blunted by subsequent history. In the multifarious and extraordinary development of man's power over nature, and man's interpretation of his own history, the patient scholar, determined to get the facts, may look with pride to uses made of what to the laymen has seemed the dulllest and most unpromising material. I fear that he has looked with too much pride.

For if the Alexandrians and their medieval successors accepted with too easy complacency the validity of classical judgments inherited from a great creative period, the modern humanistic scholar, and, among English speakers, the American scholar particularly, has bound himself to a wheel which turns in an equally vicious circle. We have lived in our time through an intensely productive and very useful period of American scholarship. But it has lacked—with a few signal exceptions—imagination, crea-

tiveness and a confident objective. That is one reason why the humanities in our educational system are threatened by after-war adjustments as well as by the immediate exigencies of a crisis in total war.

The nigger in our woodpile has been science. This has been said before in quieter times, but it needs to be said again, and more emphatically, now. I do not, of course, mean creative, speculative, imaginative science which has been the main cause for the transformation of our world into a society where man, if he acquires wisdom also, can undoubtedly live with such physical well-being and intellectual and esthetic opportunity as has never been possible before. There is no conflict in ultimate objectives between such science and the humanities. Both wish to know, and to know, obviously, for the benefit of the human race, since otherwise their knowledge is what the Bible would call vain. The curse of the American scholar, and particularly the American literary scholar, has not been pure science—it may be said with some justice that he has known too little about it to be influenced deleteriously or otherwise. His curse has been a sense of inferiority, which has led to imitation of the astoundingly successful results attained by technology and applied science generally. He has seen the technological expert experimenting with dead matter, learning to control it, learning to apply it and changing as a result the behavior of whole societies in a single generation. Unconsciously, he has become a materialist in the strict sense of that word. Unconsciously, he has left the difficult and doubtful ranges of interpretation, of appreciation, of valuation, all involving the never-to-be-entirely-calculable human spirit, and has thrown the emphasis more and more on fact-finding, on the material background of human experience, upon the search for the last detail of accurate knowledge, as if, when that were found, his job was done. He has become more accurate and more knowledgeable than his predecessors, and this is good, but somehow, somewhere, the precious and nourishing liquid of literature has been spilled from the ever more carefully moulded goblet, or frozen there.

Emerson's battle for an independent American scholarship has been long since won—perhaps it has been overwon. Our scholars, now, with admirable methodologies are exploring the literatures



of the world. In the last quarter century especially, a remarkable job has been done upon the too little known backgrounds and relationships, and the too little appreciated achievements, of our own native literature. Yet if we have been independent, it is questionable whether we have been intuitive. Those rich inflowings from foreign cultures which were the concern of the Concord men, and whose absorptions and adaptations in and reactions from, a strong native civilization seemed to Emerson to offer a great task for self-confident American scholarship, have not been the chief concern of our modern scholars. Their books, their papers (I except always outstanding examples to the contrary) have been much more concerned with new fields of facts to conquer, new cruxes for scholarship, new opportunities to correct a text or discover a parallel or a source.

I wish to repeat that I am writing with no lack of sympathy for the usefulness of such labors. The question is not of usefulness at all, it is of emphasis, and ultimate objective.

When a race, or a nation, or a profession, or a group encounters a period of adversity, as we who call ourselves humanists unquestionably have done today, it is a salutary discipline to humble the mind and search the record for our own faults, before complaining that we are unjustly attacked or misunderstood. There has always been misunderstanding of scholarship; there have always been unjust, shortsighted attacks sometimes disastrous for whole societies.

But what of our own record? Has literature for us been the articulate tradition of civilization, or has it been, sometimes, often, a set of test tubes, a collection of samples, a program for experiment upon which the chemist sets to work? What has been the relation between literary research and that teaching of literature which should be the primary training and extension and uplifting of the imagination? I submit that the extensive literary research of the last quarter-century has made teaching more accurate, has trained new researchers in better methodologies, and beyond that has almost completely failed to insure in the teaching of literature the growth, the fervor, the taste, the insight, the assimilation of what can only be assimilated and can never be directly taught, which alone justify eminence and perhaps pre-eminence, for literature among the humanities. The great teach-



ers of literature have not got their power over literature as such, over poetry as such, in their work for the doctor's degree, no matter how useful that may have been. They have got it extra-curriculum. The routine teachers of literature have spent that quarter of a century in shifting the emphasis from facts and methods which supplied their special training, to the values and aspirations which, we now see, were what their classes most bitterly needed. The dull and pedantic teachers of literature, of which there have been too many, have used their hours of instruction to regurgitate for the supposed benefit of those in process of being generally educated, what had been meant for the specialist in factual research.

I am most desirous not to make a blanket condemnation. I am most anxious to support the usefulness, as far as it goes, of factual research, and it may often go far. But I ask any fair-minded man to propose to himself this question: What, in an industrial, scientific age, in a culture threatened with destruction because technology has outrun its human controls, is the present relation between the study, thought, imagination, purpose, represented in the investigations which predominantly fill our learned publications and are the substance of our graduate education, and the job which literature, and the teaching of literature, must do in this crisis of the human spirit? What should it be? The answer is not easy to supply, and I am suggesting here no formula. The work we have done has its own values. But I submit that this generation of young people has reason to say to the American scholar, I asked for bread, and you gave me a stone.

## CAN THE SMALL COLLEGE SURVIVE ?<sup>1</sup>

FELIX MORLEY

PRESIDENT, HAVERFORD COLLEGE

IN the last analysis, the college can provide three, and only three, lasting services for its students. When these are rendered and accepted, the human product will be, in the literal sense of the word, a truly "educated" man or woman. The very best in the inherent qualities of the individual will have been drawn out and cultivated. The college graduate may not possess in any marked degree those qualities of "leadership" with which commencement orators are plaintively obsessed. But the student who has been stimulated in the manner to be described will, with rare exceptions, prove a constant force for social advancement in his work, in his community and in his home.

The first of the three great services which the college can provide is the stimulation of intellectual curiosity.

Intellectual curiosity is a virtue, essential to progress in any line, which many a college teacher, unfortunately, does not himself possess and therefore cannot inspire in his students. The number of college graduates who are uninterested in disentangling their minds from utterly stereotyped thought patterns is appalling. And yet the eagerness to learn, the restless spirit of inquiry, is one of the most pronounced characteristics of childhood. It is cultivated with success in a small number of homes and in a larger minority of elementary schools. The nurture of this evanescent spark, its development into a flame which will burn while life endures, is a primary obligation of the college. If that institution cannot establish the will to search and research among those entrusted to its care, then its entire excuse for existence is open to question.

No less important than the development of intellectual curiosity is the stimulation of the critical faculty, which is automatically saved from mere captiousness or intolerance when animated by true curiosity.

Here again the colleges cannot be said to have achieved any very striking success. In the opinion of an increasing number

<sup>1</sup> Excerpt from article in *Saturday Evening Post*, October 16, 1943, pages 42-44.

of educators, this failure is largely due to overemphasis on formal lectures as contrasted with the free discussion of the seminar or tutorial group. The glaring defects of the lecture course, questionable even when the teacher has himself done all the requisite reading, research and thinking, are emphasized by the notebook narcotic. Under the vitiating influence of this habit, the college student pitifully seeks to capture, tabulate, and later completely forget such few poor scraps of undigested knowledge as may be useful to him in examinations which are often mere memory tests.

Education, of course, should be an active rather than a passive process. It should be exciting and not boring; a cooperative quest and not a regimented route march. To stimulate the critical faculty, which alone can bring advance over inherited standards in any line of endeavor, the student should be encouraged to contribute from his own experience, his own thinking and his own research. The greater the diversity of background in the group the richer this pool of joint experience, and the more stimulating to teachers who will not fulfill their function unless they can also serve as guide, philosopher and friend. Fortunately, seminar discussions based on individual student research, with lectures subordinated to the purpose of general guidance, are being increasingly emphasized in our colleges, especially in the field of the social sciences. The war, outmoding all the textbooks, is speeding this healthy development.

Coincident with its stimulus to intellectual curiosity, and to the critical faculty, the college, as its third and most fundamental service, should always consciously seek to develop purposeful individual character. For without an integrity and idealism which encourage him to direct his talents to social advantage, mere self-centered ability on the part of the college graduate may well prove anything but a community asset.

As their aggregate wartime contribution indicates, the colleges are today fully aware of their duty to the State, though one could wish that this patriotic sentiment burned more steadily in the humdrum work of community service, instead of merely flaring up when government calls for the organized destruction of life and property.

Present emphasis on national service, moreover, requires clear qualification so far as the colleges are concerned. There is defi-

nite risk that our institutions of higher learning may, as in the Axis nations, become mere adjuncts of an intensely nationalistic government. Such an outcome would be disastrous for the American tradition. And it would further be treason to the whole spirit of education, which, in the higher reaches especially, should move steadily from parochial toward universal consideration. It should be apparent, for instance, that both a mathematical principle and a Beethoven sonata are the property of mankind, wholly beyond the jurisdiction of any human combination provisionally grouped in the shifting dimensions of space and time.

In its essential service of character building the college must therefore admit, and pride itself upon, allegiance to some authority higher than the State, the more so since strictly sectarian loyalties are tending to lose their campus influence. If the institution ceases to be formally church-related, it should the more strongly emphasize its interest in Christianity, with the teachings of Christ implicit as well as explicit in its curriculum. This does not mean that the football team and the campus newspaper are unimportant in the development of that individual integrity which is the very heart of the college function. It does mean that the elaboration of extracurricular activities must not be allowed to weaken and dissipate centralizing purpose. For if centrifugal variety overcomes centripetal unity the result is an institutional weakness which no public-relations expert will long be able to conceal.

As the challenge of wartime conditions becomes progressively more exacting we are witnessing an encouraging reaffirmation of those clear-cut responsibilities which together would seem adequately to define the function of college education. And, somewhat surprisingly, the vitality of this response is in part attributable to the educational programs of the military services in which a substantial number of small colleges have now been called upon to co-operate. Whether inspired by the Army, Navy or Air Forces, and by their deficiencies as well as by their virtues, these programs are serving to simplify a curricular architecture which had become florid and decadent during the rococo elaboration of recent years.

Certain characteristics are common to all the service programs whether designed to train meteorologists for the Air Forces,

foreign-area and language specialists for the Army, or medical officers for the Navy. And it may be suggested that the uniform characteristics of these training programs, of which only a sample is here named, are close to being the ingredients of a prescription for the academic malaise.

In the first place, the service programs are uncomfortably exacting. They are based on the assumption that the man whom the Army or Navy selects for college training is thereby privileged, and will show his appreciation of privilege by keeping abreast of his academic work. Failure in this, as measured by uniform tests which the college itself does not prepare or grade, means a return to camp, and that fact, while no disgrace, becomes a part of the youth's service record. Such insistence on scholastic performance has always been the rule at some, but by no means all, American colleges.

Evidence that the scholastic standards of the service programs are at least as high as those of the average college is no longer contestable. A startlingly large number of their drafted students have failed to make the score of 115 on the Army General Classification Test, this being the minimum score for admission to a college unit under the Army Specialized Training Program. On the other hand, many draftees who, for economic or other reasons, were unable to enter college are indicating in these tests that their mental aptitudes are worthy of an educational experience running beyond high school.

In addition to being exacting, the service educational programs are intensive. They are definitely focused on a specific professional end with no opportunity, except under the less technical Navy training, for elective courses. This does not mean that there is no so-called liberal-arts emphasis in the Army program, most of which requires as much English, history and government as is demanded from the normal undergraduate by the average college. But in the service training there is little opportunity for that dispersion of study which is one aspect of overelaboration in our colleges. Whatever the soldier students are losing by concentration, they are certainly gaining rapid mastery of their major subjects. In the twelve-month pre-meteorology program at Haverford, for instance, the Air Forces trainee will take as much mathematics as is habitually studied by our majors in that subject up to their senior year.

## THE POST-WAR COLLEGE

CONSTANCE WARREN

PRESIDENT, SARAH LAWRENCE COLLEGE

**T**HE report of the Commission on Liberal Education of the Association of American Colleges on the post-war plans for liberal education is a heartening recognition of the fact that outmoded methods in education are as ineffective as outmoded machinery in a factory.

Too frequently, departments which have felt their popularity slipping have banded together to vote that courses in their fields be required for their "disciplinary" value. Too often have colleges given promotions to the men of the faculty who published most and overlooked the men who were the best teachers. The time has come when the college must think first of its obligations to its students.

The first recommendation made by the commission is that, for returning members of the armed forces, admission to college be based upon aptitude and achievement tests rather than upon specific subject credits. This, of course, is necessitated by the fact that returning service men and women will be rusty in school subject matter.

### THE LECTURE SYSTEM

The lecture system is slated for retirement; it is a relic of the Middle Ages when books were so scarce that the professor lectured from the one copy available to students who took careful notes in order to reproduce books for themselves. With our extensive modern libraries, classes conducted exclusively by the lecture method are an anachronism. The examination procedure, by which the students who have crammed these lecture notes effectively are "passed," is poor evidence that education has taken place; and it, too, is slated to go.

No recommendation of the commission is more important than the elimination of fixed programs of study and the substitution of a flexible program suited to the needs of the individual. This should be a blow to the old theory that learning, to be respectable, must always follow the logic of subject matter.



## COUNSELING RECOMMENDED

Effective counseling, properly coordinated with instruction, is also recommended. The few colleges which are already using this method of counseling know that it is a two-way passage to good teaching, for the teacher has an opportunity to check upon the efficiency of the education he is giving at the same time that the student has a chance to bring his problems directly to the teacher. The old lecture-examination method survived so long because it was the cheap and easy method of wholesale teaching.

These recommendations of the commission for the college education of the ex-service men and women are, in effect, the recommendations of the college of the future for all our youth. The changes are deep-seated. They are based on sound theory backed by many years of psychological research into the learning process.

NOTE: From *The New York Times*, Sunday, July 25, 1943.

## INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE POST-WAR WORLD

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**C**OLLEGE and university administrators are deeply absorbed with the problems of adjustment to war conditions and with questions concerning the education of youth returning from the armed forces and the reestablishment of a peace-time program after the war. These pressing national concerns should not prevent recognition of another area of action of great importance in the post-war world. I refer to the international concern for education connected with the war and the termination of warfare.

Higher education has been disorganized and destroyed in the United Nations occupied by the Axis countries. Where institutions have been allowed to continue to operate, the program has been restricted and distorted. The program of higher education in the Axis countries has been forced into conformity with the ideology of the controlling political regime, thus being made a tool in support of the vicious program of the state and an instrument of psychological warfare.

Educational groups in England and in the United States have recommended that the United Nations develop a program of assistance for the war-devastated United Nations in the rebuilding of the facilities and programs of lower and higher institutions and a program to bring about the reconstruction of the education in the Axis countries. The most recent series of proposals was presented by the International Education Assembly meeting at Harpers Ferry in September.

The International Education Assembly emphasized the desirability of the political and educational authorities of each of the devastated countries taking initiative in surveying needs and in formulating plans for the rebuilding of their programs of education. The Assembly indicated that outsiders can help but they cannot do the job. The Assembly emphasized further that the authorities of each of the war-devastated countries should feel fully independent in the determination of the nature of the

educational program to be developed in their respective countries after the war. It was suggested that there be set up an United Nations commission on educational reconstruction to receive reports and requests of assistance from the educational administrators of the war-devastated countries indicating the extent of destruction, the extent of need, what they themselves can do, and the nature of the help they desire from the United Nations.

In the reconstruction of education in the Axis countries, the International Education Assembly emphasized the desirability of eradicating certain highly objectionable features of the educational systems by the military and civilian authorities of the United Nations. However, the Assembly emphasized the desirability of having the educational authorities of each country plan and operate the educational program of their country, with the approval of the United National representatives required during the period of occupation. It proposed that there be set up in each of the Axis nations an educational commission, composed of nationals qualified to develop and to direct the long-time policies and procedures for educational reconstruction, with such advisory assistance and approval from the United Nations authorities as may be required. Emphasis was placed on the fact that the problem of educational reconstruction in the Axis countries will be a function of the new national governments.

College and university administrators will have interest, also, in the proposal for the establishment of an International Organization for Education and Cultural Development. The International Education Assembly broadened the title of the proposed organization so as to cover, in addition to formal education, the programs of intellectual cooperation and cultural relations. It was felt desirable to bring all of the intellectual, cultural and educational activities into close relationship within the program of the one broad international organization. Some form of international organization has been endorsed by the various groups in this country and in England which have given special attention to the problem of meeting the educational needs of the post-war period, particularly the need for education bearing on the relationships among nations.

Practical administrators want to know at once what such an international organization should do. The International Educa-

tion Assembly admitted that it is not possible to tell in advance just what it would be wisest for such an organization to undertake. It listed sixteen activities which now appear feasible. Several will serve to illustrate possible functions: Encourage the adoption of treaties, postal agreements, tariff regulations and travel arrangements which will facilitate the international interchange of ideas, cultural and scientific materials, and also of students, teachers, and representatives of all fields of science and culture; provide leadership in securing emphasis on problems and materials which relate to the life and culture of different countries, interdependence of nations and citizenship in the world community, problems of postwar adjustment and reconstruction, and democratic theory and practice; encourage the establishment of international institutions for the training of educational and cultural leaders; identify and encourage the elimination of educational and cultural activities that threaten the peaceful relations among nations; and aid in the formation and effective operation of private international societies in the fields of education, science, and humanities.

The International Education Assembly which met at Harpers Ferry in September was composed of educators from twenty-six countries. The Assembly was sponsored by the Liaison Committee for International Education. The Liaison Committee is made up of representatives of some thirty educational groups in the United States with special interest in international education. The representatives of these groups come together to exchange ideas concerning the programs of these representative organizations, to receive information concerning the activities of the government and of agencies in other countries and study the needs for education in the war and post-war period. The Liaison Committee does not act for the organizations cooperating in forming the committee. Each organization makes decision concerning its own program of action.

## MYTH AND LORE IN COLLEGE EDUCATION

JARVIS S. MORRIS

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**K**IPLING has something to say about "what you learn from the black and brown will help you with the white." I deny all the implications of the appropriateness of this reference, except that it is true that you can sometimes understand your own country better by living abroad for a while. By the same token college education in a Spanish setting under the tropical moon (and sun!) ought to raise some questions about college education in "the land of the free and the home of the brave." If I have any justification to write about colleges, therefore, it is that I am not in that particular woods, but instead up a small, scraggly tree across the way.

There is a fairly well established myth among the private colleges that there is something sacred about the September to June cycle with midyear examinations the latter part of January, but different schedules in different sections of the country might be advantageous. The September to June cycle was the result of the agricultural economy that needed the grade and high school pupils, and presumably also the college students, to help on the farms. This situation no longer obtains, and although the war has forced accelerated programs upon even many of the small private colleges, there is no reason to believe that any number of them will return to any other than the September to June program when the war is over. Why should they? That has been the program for a hundred years!

In many localities over the country, however, where winters are severe and summers are mild, the regular year would better begin about March 1, the semesters be divided with July 4, and school close early in November. Tremendous cost of winter fuel would be saved, science students could have field trips throughout the course, and if the college were modern enough to have its own gardens, dairy and poultry, these would be the months of greatest production. In addition students who were free could help with the Christmas rush in stores, postal services, *etc.*, making substantial earnings, and still have January and February for enough rest and social life. The year-round summer and spring weather in Puerto Rico has shown us the great help to science

classes (Biology in particular) in the continuous growing weather. Plants, sea life, insects and small animals always are abundant, especially the insects. Under this schedule some colleges, where the wealthier students gather, could arrange delightful winter cruises (after the war) to Latin America, where professors and students could participate in the summer sessions of the leading universities of the southern hemisphere.

If the college specialized as we do in the "poor but worthy" student, there is much more reason for shifting the academic program. If there is any job about a college harder than operating an efficient, honest, fair and effective self-help program, it can only be that of doubling the endowment. The March to November program would certainly help with the self-help problems, if the college did establish its own food-producing system. Our institution keeps bees, raises sugar cane, coffee, vanilla, cows, pigs and chickens, obtains over ten per cent of its academic budget from the income of these and other subsidiary enterprises, produces about sixty per cent of its food supplies and provides work for the students. Almost any college in the United States proper on the March-to-November plan could do better than we do because of (1) richer land that has not been farmed for 400 years straight, (2) healthier students, (3) a larger proportion of students who have been trained to work, (4) tradition of work and no prejudice against it and (5) longer days of growing weather from May to September—in other words, greater production.

There is another myth about a college education for which the colleges can be blamed only in part; the rest of the blame can be attached to the student himself. It may be an honor to go through college in three years, but it is certainly considered a dishonor to take five or more years at it. There are some who would junk the four-year program and grant an arts degree at the end of two years of general education. I do not care to argue the merits of either a two-year or a four-year course, but why should the student, who can pay only half of his fees, not take 12 hours of classes a week and work four hours a day to graduate from a normal four-year course in five years or a two-year course in two and a half years? Or if the student has no money to pay at all, why should he not be encouraged by the college to take only ten hours of classes, work five or six hours a day and finish the four-year course in six years? In the March-to-November



plan the students who do not have homes to go to, children of foreign residents, *etc.*, could be kept at the college from November to March to work in the dairy and poultry plant and to maintain the buildings and grounds. College dairies and poultry farms could sell milk and eggs at highest prices from November to March—and feed their students just as nourishing milk and eggs from March to November on a much lower market.

This proposed program lets the parents pay the fuel bills at home, where an extra child or two increases very little the coal or oil consumption, and provide the table at the season when foods are at their peak prices. If the war continues several more years, with attendant fuel shortages, many colleges may be forced to adopt some such program, as some did in the last war and at least one to my knowledge did last winter. With labor shortages in every phase of life, doubtless there will be much more student part-time work done this year and until after the war is over. Students used to ask for the privilege of work; for the duration I suspect that in many institutions the administration will have to urge students to help with the maintenance.

Struggling colleges, particularly the small denominational schools that have been the very backbone of the American higher educational frame, might well consider shifting to this March-to-November program as a wartime measure with the aim of continuing it beyond the duration if it is found to be successful. The nation can ill afford to lose some of these superb institutions that are slowly being squeezed to death between the accrediting agencies, the draft boards and falling interest rates. They have been the door of opportunity to thousands who would never have become outstanding leaders and citizens but for their generous scholarships, personal interest and sliding scales of expenses.

There used to be a number of such colleges that never turned away a bright student who was willing to work, no matter how little money he had, but one by one they have grown, prospered, passed out of the pioneer class, became accredited, raised tuition rates and left the poor students with smaller opportunity to help himself. Now if a boy with a mere B-average in high school and no money wanted to get a college education, to what college could he go? He might go to any one of scores of colleges by winning a scholarship (and those colleges that have increased tuitions always excuse themselves by offering more scholarships), but the

really poor boy finds himself more embarrassed than ever to attend such a school on scholarship. Everybody else has better clothes, everybody else has money to spend, the social pressure is so great that only the truly heroic can stick it through. Poverty of itself does not create heroes. The poor boy finds less opportunity in the school that has "arrived" than his father found in that same school a generation earlier when it was young and struggling just as its students were.

No sane educator would fail to recognize the improvement in college education in the last generation brought about by the accrediting agencies. It is true that many small schools that died, deserved to die, but there were many killed that abundantly deserve to live and serve. Ask their embittered alumni! Myths and fetiches have grown up about accreditation and its "consummation devoutly to be wished." It is possible for a college to gain recognition from an association and lose its own soul.

I should like to see some college not on the accredited list that is facing extinction launch forth on a program that might be phrased in some such announcement to the public: "This is an opportunity school. We are glad to accept students who can pay the small fees we charge, but we shall accept students with good records and ability irrespective of their ability to pay, if they are willing to work and to take a longer time than the usual four years to finish college. We are not accredited and probably shall not be for a good many years, but we shall do the best possible work under the circumstances and shall require thorough scholastic achievement of our students. We shall seek faculty members with more than the usual amount of idealism to struggle with us and make this program possible. Students who graduate here can only go on to professional schools and universities by special examinations and on their own strength, not on the name of the college. None but the best shall be admitted and none but the best shall receive diplomas, but economic status does not enter into our measurements in selecting 'the best.' If you want to work hard and long to gain a good education, this is the place to come. The regular school year will run from March to November, but those who wish may work the entire year, full time during the winter and part time during the months of school. All you need to go to college here are a good high school record, a good mind, a healthy body and a Christian spirit."

## INTER-AMERICAN INSTITUTES IN THE UNITED STATES

OLCOTT DEMING

EDUCATION PROGRAM OFFICER, OFFICE OF INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS

**D**URING the academic year 1942-43 some 67 colleges and universities in the United States have presented special programs on Inter-American relations in cooperation with the Office of Inter-American Affairs.

Originally designated as a series of lectures to be given by authorities in various fields relating to the other American republics, the programs have been called variously lecture series, institutes or conferences depending upon the extent or duration of the proceedings or the interpretation which each college or university gave to its program.

Conferences of this nature or in this particular field are nothing new in our institutions of higher learning. There are three aspects of the lecture series held this year, however, which should be of particular interest to educators. The first is the relationship between a government agency and the independent educational institutions with which cooperative programs were carried out. The second is the high caliber and the marked success of the programs in spite of the heavy responsibilities which the war has put upon colleges and universities, the uncertainties of curriculum planning even a few months ahead and the loss of teaching staff. The third is the unusual variety and vitality of the programs presented in various parts of the country.

Late in the summer of 1942 letters were sent by the Coordinator to the presidents of 72 colleges and universities located in every state in the Union and representative of state, municipal, private and denominational institutions. They were asked if they would be interested in developing an expanded interest in Inter-American affairs among educational institutions and the public generally. All but seven of the invitations were accepted.

Working arrangements were set up between the Coordinator's Office and the colleges, whereby the CIAA supplied central source material, guidance and direction and the colleges took on the full load of program arrangement and community participation.

The Coordinator's Office provided 16-mm. sound films on the other Americas, and furnished each institution with complete sample sets of Inter-American teaching aids, informational pamphlets and posters prepared or distributed by the Coordinator's Office, the United States Office of Education and the Pan American Union.

The advisory service of the Speakers' Bureau maintained by the Coordinator's Office, which lists some 1,600 qualified lecturers on Inter-American affairs, was made available to participating institutions, though the choice of speakers and all negotiations for securing them, were left to the discretion and initiative of the individual college or university. The CIAA Press Division assisted in publicizing the lecture series in the United States, sent special men to cover certain of the programs and prepared illustrated matted stories for release in the other Americas. A number of employees of the Coordinator's Office took part in the programs directly as official representatives of the Office or as lecturers on special topics in the Inter-American field.

The interest and participation of the public schools, civic organizations and adult groups was encouraged by the colleges and the various sessions of the programs were open to the public. In addition, they enlisted the support of the local press and radio for the benefit of the public.

This was the pattern of cooperation, but as it worked out in practice, there were many variations from the pattern which allowed the maximum of adjustment for meeting local needs and permitting the development of programs expressive of individual ideas and interests. This latitude contributed more perhaps to the success of the lecture series than any other one factor and is a most encouraging example of federal cooperation with independent educational institutions.

The success of the programs exceeded expectations. It is perhaps not too optimistic to interpret this fact as indicating that the war has served to convince educators and the general public of the important place of greater understanding among the Americas in the war and postwar world.

The best way to illustrate the interest expressed through these programs all over the country and the variety and vitality of the forms in which it was demonstrated is to describe in brief some of the lecture series, institutes and conferences themselves.

Typical of the programs on Inter-American affairs held by the larger institutions were those at Boston University and the University of Rochester. These two may be chosen because they undertook to represent the interests of a number of institutions or of a comparatively large population area. Naturally, a long and careful period of planning was necessary.

The Boston program was called the New England Institute of Inter-American Affairs and marked the annual celebration of Founders' Day at Boston University. All the colleges and universities in New England were invited to participate and a large number of civic and cultural agencies in the New England area also took active part in the preparation and carrying out of the Institute. Approximately 11,000 people attended the conferences, lectures, panel discussions, dances, recitals and formal dinner meetings. The variety of the program was indicative of the broad intellectual basis on which Inter-American relations are now established. Sessions were devoted to the poetry of the Americas, youth in the Americas, the dance and graphic arts of the other Americas, as well as press and commercial relations in the Hemisphere. Boston University brought the Institute to a climax by conferring honorary degrees on three distinguished citizens of Mexico, Peru and Brazil. In addition to the large number of direct participants, the proceedings were carried to an unnumbered audience over four radio stations, one of which was on a national hook-up. There is no doubt that the interest in the other Americas which made this Institute at Boston University possible will be continued and expanded through numerous nuclear institutes in New England which have had their interest stimulated and directed to tangible outlets.

The University of Rochester undertook to further the long term program for the better understanding of Inter-American affairs in western New York State by planning a Conference on Latin America to take place in Rochester in the latter part of January, 1943. The Conference, which lasted two days, was looked upon only as a high point in a continuous effort preceding and following the Conference to stimulate the active interest of individuals and organizations of this area in affairs concerning all the American republics.

As early as November, 1942, a central depository for films on the other Americas was set up at the University and these were



loaned continuously to schools and civic organizations up to and following the time that the Conference took place. By the end of January over 33,000 people had attended showings of some 15 films secured through the Coordinator's Office. These films served the double purpose of disseminating direct information on the other Americas and of stimulating interest in the arts, languages, customs and peoples of South and Central America and Mexico. Arts and crafts exhibits were placed in strategic locations in the University and throughout the city for the same purpose.

The participation of distinguished visitors from the other Americas in classroom discussions with the students was an important feature of the Rochester Conference. Classes in Spanish, government, history philosophy, education, sociology and economics were among those in which United States students had an opportunity to question directly and informally men in the forefront of the Inter-American movement. In concluding the Conference the University of Rochester presented before a crowded theater by short-wave radio the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws to the Foreign Minister for Brazil, who responded, speaking in Portuguese, from Rio de Janeiro.

There is probably no better way of showing the active interest aroused by an Inter-American Conference established on such a comprehensive basis than by quoting from a report of a secondary school superintendent near Rochester following the Conference:

"Spanish courses are already started in Irondequoit and East Rochester, Brighton and Fairport will follow this coming September. In East Rochester, a Spanish Club, whose membership consists of faculty members and townspeople, has been started. Some twenty or more are already members. School assemblies, where about 2,000 persons were reached, have been held with programs of South American music and discussion of South American life, custom and governments by speakers who know. I believe there will be a big 'carry over.' "

Institutes and Conferences of similar plan but somewhat smaller in scope were carried on at many other universities, among them the University of Cincinnati, Northwestern University, Western Reserve University and the University of Pennsylvania. At the University of Cincinnati, for instance, some 3,000



people attended the sessions while another 5,000 were estimated to have visited various exhibits throughout the city. It should be observed at this point that most institutions made every effort to secure speakers from the other American republics for their programs, which served the double purpose of giving the public an opportunity to hear first-hand discussions of various Inter-American problems and of establishing personal contacts.

In contrast to these larger meetings were ones such as the Inter-American Student Conference held at Bard College. Here there was no attempt to attract large audiences or to serve as wide an area. Instead some 25 Latin-American students studying in this country were invited to come to Bard for a long weekend to discuss with the Bard students and selected representatives from women's colleges in the East subjects of general interest to students. The participation of adults in the various panels and conferences was kept to a minimum and topics for discussion were assigned ahead of time on such subjects as "Educational Institutions and Trends in the Americas," "Who Gets Educated in Latin America and What For?" and "Relation Between Teacher and Student in Latin America."

One of the unforeseen assets of the Bard program was that students from various South American countries had an opportunity to meet each other for the first time and to discuss on common ground the educational problems of their respective countries. A college dance held in honor of the visiting guests gave many of the students from the other American republics their first opportunity to dance with their "yankee" hosts and hostesses, a privilege which seemed to be greatly appreciated by participants from both sides of the border. Though there were probably no more than 70 in attendance at any one session of the student Conference, the interest was intense and the discussions first-hand and factual. There is little doubt that when these students finish their studies and return to their home lands, they will take with them as a result of this meeting an awareness of the similarity of their hopes and problems with those of North American students.

Some of the lecture series were directed particularly to teachers, as were those at the University of Denver, Fresno State College in California and Ball State Teachers College in Indiana.

Conferences of this type have a particular value because it can be assumed that the teachers will pass on some of their new information and interest to their classes and their attention will be directed to new sources of information and material relating to the other Americas. The University of Michigan and the University of Florida chose to bring their programs to the public rather than the public to the programs. In spite of difficulties of travel, they sent distinguished visitors or professors from their own universities to educational centers in their states. This was an innovation in extension service and resulted in the establishment of new centers of Inter-American studies where only a disorganized interest had existed before. The University of Notre Dame followed the same plan, though the arousing of student interest was one of the chief purposes of the field trips, and members of the University Spanish Club did part of the extension work.

Fisk University established a pattern of its own in conducting an Inter-American program in conjunction with the University's Annual Festival of Music and Fine Arts. The theme of the three-day Conference was Afro-American Cultures and the resources drawn upon included music, the dance and the drama, though there were discussions as well on such topics as "The Influence of African Languages on Haitian Creole Speech," "Africa in the New World" and "Tropical Medicine and Nutrition." The Fisk University "Festival" offers a good example of the cooperation of a private educational institution with a government agency to further its own special interests, and at the same time to emphasize an aspect of intellectual forces in the Americas which is part of the broad field in which the Coordinator's Office is interested.

There has been no attempt here to call attention to all the institutions which carried on Inter-American programs in the United States this year in cooperation with the Coordinator's Office. Those mentioned are types which illustrate the energy and individuality with which American colleges and universities are meeting new situations and assuming new responsibilities in a war world. The details set forth in this article concerning any one program should not obscure the total outline and significance of the work which the Coordinator's Office and the colleges car-

ried out together. Reduced to its simplest form, it may be said that in response to a known demand and an anticipated interest and need, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs offered to a certain number of colleges and universities a limited grant of money and certain services in return for the time and energy of interested groups of educators. The educators, in turn, drew upon their own zeal and faith in the public's interest in the Inter-American field in planning their lecture series, institutes or conferences. The results show that the Coordinator's estimate of interest and need was, if anything, conservative and that the educators' reliance on public interest was fully justified.

When it is understood that it is the policy of the Coordinator's Office to carry out programs wherever possible through existing agencies and institutions it will be clear that the cooperation secured from colleges and universities this year marks a very important development towards the establishment of the Inter-American educational program in the United States on a permanent footing. It is to be hoped that the coming year will see an extension of the ground already gained.

## ADEQUACY OF BENEFITS UNDER COLLEGE RETIREMENT PLANS

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**A** SUBSTANTIAL majority of college plans for retirement income are funded through retirement annuity contracts purchased with premiums that are a fixed percentage of annual salaries. After a plan of this sort is once established, it operates so nearly automatically that college administrators are apt to give it little further attention. Even the business officer turns the details over to one of his clerks who readily grasps the simple routine that requires attention. To be sure, an item appears in the budget each year but this soon becomes a matter of course and since it bears almost a fixed relation to the item for salaries, there is nothing about it to attract attention in any particular year after the plan is once well established.

Of course, these characteristics have their virtues but it would be good policy for every college president to have a reminder on his calendar to review the retirement plan periodically, perhaps even once a year, to assure himself that it does not need tinkering. It is too easy to enjoy a comfortable feeling that retirement income is being cared for, without inquiring in a searching manner just what this means; this applies to the professors as well as the president.

This paper deals with just one feature of retirement plans—one that needs attention at many institutions today—the size of retirement incomes. In establishing their retirement plans, colleges had the choice of fixing benefits with costs left uncertain or fixing costs with benefits indeterminate. Uncertainties inherent in the sources of college incomes have led to pretty general agreement that the proper choice was made when costs were fixed. Now we must face the question of adjusting those costs because a dollar of contribution today buys substantially less in the way of a retirement benefit than was the case when most college retirement plans were established.

Until the late 1920's a professor who started contributions of 5% of salary at age 35 with the employing college making equal

payments could look forward to retirement income at age 65 of more than half salary; today the prospect of a corresponding professor is about one-third of salary. This is due largely to the impact of lower interest rates and evidences of greater longevity on the part of annuitants.

Despite this striking contrast between returns anticipated sixteen years ago and now, most college retirement plans have remained unchanged with respect to contributions and, unfortunately, nearly all colleges and universities that have established plans in recent years have followed in the footsteps of their predecessors by fixing contributions as 10% of salary shared equally between the college and the individual.

#### HOW MODIFY EXISTING PLANS

Many college administrators are becoming conscious of the inadequacy of their institutional retirement provisions and are asking what to do about them. Obviously, benefits can be increased only by increasing contributions; discussion centers about how to do this most effectively with maximum satisfaction and minimum disturbance of relationships with staff members who have entered service at different times during the past twenty years.

Perhaps the immediate thought is to increase the matching percentages from 5% to 6% or even 7%. If the method of equal matching was sound twenty years ago, it should be sound today; if the 5% basis has become inadequate and if the need for retirement benefits is unchanged, then the remedy is simple, if practical—increase the percentage. But this is an over-simplification because the inadequacy has been growing gradually. From the standpoint of returns, TIAA now has six different vintages of retirement annuity contracts and at many colleges and universities all six kinds are represented. To increase the matching percentage for all contracts alike would be neither necessary nor sufficient to solve the problem. If increases are to be made for some but not for others, this should be in accordance with a carefully reasoned plan to obtain desired results and to avoid unpleasantnesses of various sorts.

Another suggestion is that contributions be increased substantially at higher ages. At some time between ages 50 and 60 the

family obligations of a worker, whether a professor or a maintenance employee, normally drop off very substantially so that larger contributions thereafter entail even less burden than did smaller ones in earlier years. This suggests that at age 55 contributions might be increased to 10% matched. An immediate modification of this idea is that a sliding scale might be introduced to fit the situations of different individuals—perhaps an extra 1% matched for each year by which the attained age exceeds 50 when the individual chooses to begin the additional contributions, up to 10% matched if this is delayed to age 60; but this particular formula sacrifices other virtues to simplicity.

This second suggestion, like the increase in the level of matched contributions throughout the service period, should not be adopted for all alike regardless of when service began. To do so would involve an unnecessary outlay for the institution with respect to those who began participation in the early 1920's. But to vary its application to different classes requires careful attention.

A third method comes normally to the socially-minded administrator, especially if he is inclined to cut Gordian knots. He reasons that it is not practical to retire a faithful servant on a pittance and that there are serious difficulties about increasing contributions beyond 5%. Furthermore, many will die or withdraw before they retire or before they reach retirement age. Let the college simply announce that upon retirement it will supplement the benefit purchased under the contributory retirement plan so that the total allowance shall reach a stated minimum. This minimum can be fixed in dollars or can be related to final salary or to compensation from year to year. It can be \$100 a month or half of final salary or  $1\frac{1}{2}\%$  of total salary for all years of service. This suggestion is enticing because of its simplicity but, like a sharp tool, it should be handled with care. It needs careful definition; but the greatest danger lies in the element of cost. Cautious budgeting of cost, rather than optimistic postponement with the conviction that it can't be large, will result in modest promises and avoid the possibility that a future president may find the college's current income heavily mortgaged.

Only in degree is this third suggestion less objectionable than unfunded promises with respect to the whole retirement income,



with no equity running to the staff member during working years. Almost without exception colleges have recognized the immense value to education in general of the free mobility of professional talent. Thousands of individuals and institutions in this country have profited from the freedom of an individual to move from one institution to another that accompanies the practice of funding retirement benefits through non-forfeitable contracts that are the property of the staff members. Many of our present college presidents and many college professors have transferred from other institutions to the great advantage of education—and have found these transfers easier for the institutions as well as for themselves because of this practice. This advantage would have been lost had retirement benefits been merely promised by the institutions with no equity upon withdrawal and, just to the extent that unfunded supplements to benefits under contributory plans are substantial, they will interfere with freedom of movement between institutions.

### *A Basis of Modification*

Whatever method may be chosen to supplement existing plans for retirement income, it would be well, if possible, to find a logical basis for the numerical quantities involved—a basis that can be applied alike to present staff members of different groups for whom existing arrangements promise retirement benefits of varying degrees of adequacy.

As already stated, our colleges have almost uniformly chosen to fix the cost of retirement benefits and let the benefits themselves be what they will. The writer is convinced that this was wise and that no modification of these plans should weaken this principle substantially. However, the desired level of benefits should be a fundamental guide in deciding what contributions to fix, even though it cannot be controlling because it may call for contributions that are impracticably large.

If by some balancing of the desirable and the practical we can decide what to do about newcomers, perhaps this will help to determine supplements for various classes of present staff members. After choosing contributions in some such manner, they will remain fixed except for possible modification after periodic review. We can thus avoid any "loose end" in budgeting and still aim at fairly definite goals as to benefits.

And just a word about a uniform rule for benefits. Even if a definite formula is adopted for benefits, this cannot hope to meet needs to the same degree for different staff members because these needs vary so widely. One will be in normally good health after retirement while another will be bedridden. One may have an invalid wife; another may be a bachelor or a widower; and still another may have a wife in normal health or even employed. Some will have other dependents and some will have savings to supplement their retirement benefits; others, equally meritorious, will be dependent upon retirement income alone.

### *A Typical New Participant*

In the paragraphs that follow, the problem of adjusting retirement income is tackled by centering attention on the fate of one whom we might consider a normal new entrant to the retirement plan. Assumptions as to the beginning age and retirement age are, of course, essential but the choice of certain ages in the examples that follow indicates in no sense that these ages are recommended. We have quite generally agreed that income after retirement shall be related to income during working years. To the extent that this principle is retained, the level of salaries is unimportant in our calculations.

### *Examples*

To be concrete, let us assume that a male participant begins to contribute now at age 30, that he retires at age 65 and that his salary experience is as follows:

Age	Salary
30-34	\$2,400
35-39	3,200
40-44	4,000
45-64	4,800

Contributions on a 5% matched basis if applied to purchase a TIAA contract would produce a single life annuity with payments ceasing at death of \$1,692 per annum payable monthly. This is 35.2% of final salary and 41.1% of average salary over the whole period of service. If salary had remained constant throughout service, the benefit would have been 43.3% of salary. Thus, while salary doubled in fifteen years in this illustration

and remained at the highest figure for twenty years, the retirement benefit is only 2.2% of average salary below what it would have been had there been no increases in salary at all.

N. B. Out of consideration to the reader and in the interest of clarity, all precautionary qualifying phrases as to the value of calculations are omitted in the text. All figures follow the annuity rate bases of Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association. Dividends, past, present and future, as well as any possible subsequent change in rate basis, as it might apply to new contracts or those already issued, are disregarded in the calculations. This paper is only to describe a method; if found meritorious, this method should perhaps be applied repeatedly if the purchasing power of contributions changes substantially in the future.

Another point of interest is that the actual salary figures do not affect the ratio of the retirement benefit to the average salary. The important fact is that, during five-year intervals, the salaries received were in the ratios 3:4:5:6, the final figure applying for twenty years, and that retirement occurs at age 65. The results in percentages are the same for any other set of salaries proportional to this set. Others might be:

*Salary Scales Similar to the Above  
Salaries*

Age	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
30-34	\$1,200	\$1,800	\$3,000	\$4,500
35-39	1,600	2,400	4,000	6,000
40-44	2,000	3,000	5,000	7,500
45-64	2,400	3,600	6,000	9,000

Thus the same percentages apply to a wide range of salary experiences.

But the five-year increases assumed in this example may be far from realistic in many institutions. With this in mind, we have varied the periods between increases and have made calculations for three different age schemes, beginning at age 30, which may be indicated as follows:

*Salary Increase Schemes*

Scheme	Beginning age	Ages at which changes are made		
A	30	35	40	45

B	30	35	40	50
C	30	35	45	55

Again, the ratios 3:4:5:6 may not seem appropriate at some institutions. Calculations have been made for another set of ratios, 4:5:6:8. Each set of salary ratios has been combined with each scheme of salary increases. Results are assembled in the tabulation below and in Table I.

Salary scales	Salary increase schemes
1. 3:4:5:6	A. 30-35-40-45
	B. 30-35-40-50
2. 4:5:6:8	C. 30-35-45-55

Illustrations: 1B Initial salary \$900,* means:	Age range	Salary
	30-34	\$ 900
	35-39	1,200
	40-49	1,500
	50-64	1,800

2C Initial salary \$1,600, means:	Age range	Salary
	30-34	\$1,600
	35-44	2,000
	45-54	2,400
	55-64	3,200

TABLE I

*Retirement Benefits Beginning at Age 65 as Percentage of Salary For Male Employee Starting Contributions of 10% of Salary (5% Matched) at Age 30*  
(Assuming present rates remain in effect and no dividend credits)

Salary schedule	Single life annuity as a percentage of		Percentage if salary had remained fixed
	Average salary	Final salary	
1A	41.1	35.2	
1B	41.0	34.2	
1C	41.0	32.2	43.3
2A	40.9	34.3	for all
2B	40.8	32.8	
2C	40.9	30.6	

\* Initial salary is of no significance if other figures are varied proportionately.

*Beginning Age*

It may be that age 30 is unrealistic at some institutions for the beginning of participation in the retirement plan. With this in mind, calculations have been made to show the effect of entering Schemes A, B and C at age 35 instead of age 30. For instance, to enter Scheme A at age 35 under salary scale 1 means to start at 35 with salary of 4 and increase at age 40 to a salary of 5 and at age 45 to a salary of 6. Also, three other increase schemes have been added as follows:

*Salary Increase Schemes*

Scheme	Beginning	Ages at which		
	age	changes are made		
D	35	40	45	50
E	35	40	45	55
F	35	40	50	60

For these new increase schemes, figures are shown also, assuming participation begins at age 40. These calculations apply to salary scales 1 and 2 suggested above. The results are shown in Table II.

*Retirement Age*

The figures given above may not interest some college officers because of the retirement age chosen. With this in mind, similar calculations have been made with retirement at age 70 and figures have been added for persons entering schemes D, E and F at age 40. (See Table III.)

*Discussion of Figures*

One purpose in presenting all these figures is to prove to any doubting Thomas that much of their diversity is unnecessary. Running an eye down the first column of percentages in each table establishes that variation in detail of salary increase schemes has little effect on the retirement benefit as a percentage of average salary. The column of ratios to final salary shows at once that these figures are much smaller than the ratios to average salary, and also that this ratio is affected substantially by the period during which final salary has been effective. There is, of course, nothing surprising about this, but it may be of interest

TABLE II

*Retirement Benefits Beginning at Age 65 as Percentage of Salary For Male Employee, Contributions 10% of Salary (5% Matched)*  
(Assuming present rates remain in effect and no dividend credits)

Salary schedule	Single life annuity as a percentage of		Percentage if salary had remained fixed
	Average salary	Final salary	
Contributions begin at age 35			
1A*	33.7	30.9	
1B	33.6	29.9	
1C	33.4	27.9	34.6
1D	33.0	27.5	for all
1E	33.0	26.6	
1F	33.1	24.8	
2A	33.5	30.0	
2B	33.4	28.5	
2C	33.2	26.3	34.6
2D	32.8	26.7	for all
2E	32.9	25.3	
2F	33.1	23.4	
Contributions begin at age 40			
1D	26.2	23.6	
1E	26.2	22.7	26.8
1F	26.1	21.0	for all
2D	26.1	22.8	
2E	26.0	21.5	26.8
2F†	26.1	19.5	for all

\* 1A, initial salary \$2,000, beginning at age 35, means:

Age range	Salary
35-39	\$2,000
40-44	2,500
45-64	3,000

† 2F, initial salary \$2,000, beginning at age 40, means:

Age range	Salary
40-49	\$2,000
50-59	2,400
60-64	3,200

to observe the actual magnitudes involved, as disclosed by comparing the figures for 1A with 1F or 2A with 2F in the second column of percentages in any of the tables. For an "A" scheme the final salary is enjoyed from age 45 while for an "F" scheme, this much coveted status is attained only at age 60.

Having noted these two characteristics of the detailed figures, the results may be summarized as shown in Table IV.



TABLE III

*Retirement Benefits Beginning at Age 70 as Percentage of Salary For Male Employee, Contributions 10% of Salary (5% Matched)*  
(Assuming present rates remain in effect and no dividend credits)

Salary schedule	Single life annuity as a percentage of		Percentage if salary had remained fixed
	Average salary	Final salary	
Contributions begin at age 30			
1A	59.7	52.2	63.0 for all
1B	59.5	50.9	
1C	59.3	48.2	
2A	59.4	51.0	
2B	59.2	49.0	
2C	59.0	46.1	
Contributions begin at age 35			
1A	49.9	46.4	51.3 for all
1B	49.8	45.0	
1C	49.4	42.3	
1D	48.8	41.8	
1E	48.7	40.6	
1F	48.6	38.2	
2A	49.6	45.2	
2B	49.3	43.2	
2C	49.0	40.3	
2D	48.5	40.7	
2E	48.5	39.0	
2F	48.5	36.4	
Contributions begin at age 40			
1D	40.0	36.7	41.0 for all
1E	39.9	35.4	
1F	39.6	33.0	
2D	39.7	35.6	
2E	39.6	33.8	
2F	39.4	31.2	

Inspection of this summary should impress the importance of the age at which contributions begin and the age at which annuity payments begin. Each year's delay in contributions after age 30 decreases the benefit in the neighborhood of  $3\frac{1}{2}\%$  and each year's postponement of retirement after age 65 increases the benefit by about 9%. This analysis leads the writer to set down the following guides for determining a schematic participant in

TABLE IV—SUMMARY OF EXAMPLES

*Single Life Annuity Benefit as Percentage of Salary For Male Employee,  
Contributing 10% of Salary (5% Matched)*  
(Assuming present rates remain in effect and no dividend credits)

	Retirement age 65		Retirement age 70	
	As % of Average salary	As % of Final salary	As % of Average salary	As % of Final salary
Contributions begin at age 30				
Average of examples .....	41.0	33.2	59.4	49.6
If salary is fixed .....	43.3	43.3	63.0	63.0
Contributions begin at age 35				
Average of examples .....	33.2	27.3	49.0	41.6
If salary is fixed .....	34.6	34.6	51.3	51.3
Contributions begin at age 40				
Average of examples .....	26.1	21.8	39.7	34.3
If salary is fixed .....	26.8	26.8	41.0	41.0

a retirement plan when considering modifications for improvement of the plan:

1. Careful attention should be given to the age at which contributions begin—to reflect either present practice or the practice as planned after modification.

2. Retirement age is most important in determining cost of a chosen benefit. The best interests of the institution should determine this age. By making it high the cost of benefits will be made small, but much of the value in the retirement plan may be lost.

3. No particular care need be given to the details of the salary scale; make it fairly representative with no minor increases and only a few major ones. If it is desired that the retirement benefit be a chosen proportion of final salary, or, better, of the average salary during the last ten years of service, it is important that the salary scale be chosen with care as to the length of service after the last major change in salary.

#### *Adjustments for Older Participants*

Preceding paragraphs have centered about a typical newcomer to a retirement plan; all figures are, therefore, based on present annuity rates. To furnish a basis of judging what revision of a retirement plan should be made with respect to individuals who began participation at different times in the past, Table V shows,

along with figures based on current rates, similar figures applying to entrants during various periods listed in the first column of this table. The notation is the same as used for earlier tabulations.

TABLE V

*Single Life Annuity as a Percentage of Salary for Male Employee, Contributing 10% of Salary (5% Matched), Based on Contractual Provisions Effective During Issue Periods Stated*  
(Assuming present rates remain in effect and no dividend credits)

Period* of issue	Salary schedule	Retirement age 65		Retirement age 70	
		As % of Average salary	As % of Final salary	As % of Average salary	As % of Final salary
Begin at age 30					
1/1/1928 to	1A	64.1	54.9	96.1	84.1
3/31/1932	2C	63.7	47.8	94.7	74.0
4/1/1932 to	1A	58.6	50.2	87.0	76.1
11/30/1933	2C	60.1	45.1	88.4	69.1
12/1/1933 to	1A	57.3	49.1	84.8	74.2
12/31/1935	2C	58.5	45.9	86.1	69.9
1/1/1936 to	1A	49.0	42.0	71.8	62.8
11/30/1938	2C	49.7	37.3	72.4	56.5
12/1/1938 to	1A	43.1	36.9	62.5	54.7
6/30/1941	2C	43.1	32.4	62.1	48.5
7/1/1941 to	1A	41.1	35.2	59.7	52.2
Date	2C	40.9	30.6	59.0	46.1
Begin at age 35					
1/1/1928 to	1D	49.9	41.6	76.1	65.2
3/31/1932	2F	50.2	35.6	75.7	56.8
4/1/1932 to	1D	46.2	38.5	69.6	59.7
11/30/1933	2F	48.0	34.0	71.4	53.6
12/1/1933 to	1D	45.2	37.7	68.0	58.3
12/1/1935	2F	47.1	33.4	70.0	52.5
1/1/1936 to	1D	39.0	32.5	58.2	49.9
11/30/1938	2F	40.1	28.4	59.1	44.3
12/1/1938 to	1D	34.6	28.8	51.1	43.8
6/30/1941	2F	35.0	24.8	51.2	38.4
7/1/1941 to	1D	33.0	27.5	48.8	41.8
Date	2F	33.1	23.4	48.5	36.4

\* Figures shown are for policies issued near the beginning of the periods indicated; they would be slightly different for issues further along in some of these periods.

*Discussion of Figures in Table V*

Again it is emphasized that these figures are presented only to illustrate a method of approach and to give a rough idea of values when amendment of a retirement plan is under consideration. What shall be done at a particular institution must depend upon the local conception of

- (a) an adequate retirement benefit;
- (b) the age at which contributions shall begin;
- (c) the age at which retirement shall take place; and
- (d) the relative importance of an appropriate retirement plan as compared with other uses that may be made of the funds that would be necessary to support it.

As to this last point, there is plenty of evidence that the convictions and leadership of college presidents have had as much to do with decisions regarding retirement plans as have the financial positions of their various institutions.

Space does not permit thorough discussion of the points just mentioned but, whatever decisions may be made at particular institutions, examination of Table V may be helpful. If participation in a retirement plan begins normally at age 30 and retirement occurs normally at age 70, perhaps a 5% matched plan is satisfactory; but if participation begins normally at age 35 and retirement occurs at age 65, benefits provided by recently issued contracts seem quite modest under almost any conception of adequacy.

Perhaps attention to these facts may lead some institutions to get annuity contributions started at an earlier age. It seems that most faculty members begin their professional service by age 30. They are usually more than willing to tighten their belts to get this kind of savings program going. Certainly this is the easiest way for most institutions to bolster prospective retirement benefits. Some college officers question this method because it loses for the institution whatever contributions it might make for those who go elsewhere at early ages; but these officers fail to realize that they thus repudiate the fundamental principles of college retirement plans. They need to go back and re-study the basis that has made these plans so useful, both to individual institutions and to higher education in general.

## APPLICATIONS OF METHOD

*Benefit Related to Average Salary*

Suppose the objective of a retirement plan now operating is a benefit of about 50% of average salary, this to begin at age 65, and that contributions of 5% matched begin normally under the plan at age 30. Inspection of Table V above indicates that no modification is necessary for those who began participation prior to January 1, 1936, and that very little is needed for those who started before December 1, 1938. It is probably not worthwhile to strive for minor refinements since the 50% is pulled out of the air and, besides, the needs of retiring individuals vary far more widely than do the retirement benefits.

For one with salary scale 1A who started 5% matched contributions at age 30 on January 1, 1939, an increase to 6% matched on January 1, 1944, gives an expectation at age 65 of 50.3% of average compensation. For a similar newcomer today placed on a 6% matched basis, the expectation at age 65 would be 49.3% of average salary.

*Benefits Related to Final Average Salary*

Suppose the objective chosen is a benefit of about 50% of average salary for the last ten years of service, this to begin at age 65, and that contributions of 5% matched begin normally at age 30 under a plan now operating. Inspection of Table V shows that a supplement will be needed for all periods of issue and for both salary schedules for which figures are given, with the exception of 1A for the first two periods of issue shown in the table. Furthermore, for all periods of issue, salary schedule 2C produces a less favorable benefit when related to final salary than does schedule 1A. This is because the higher salary applies under 1A for twenty years, while under 2C it applies for only ten years.

From Table V we see that if a newcomer with prospects of salary schedule 2C contributes on a 5% matched basis, the benefit at age 65 will be about 30.6% of final salary; hence to bring this benefit up to 50% of final salary, it will be necessary that contributions be slightly more than 8% matched. A little more than 7% matched would do for one anticipating salary schedule 1A. No suggestion is implied that the contribution basis should be different for different newcomers at a particular institution but,

when a typical individual has been determined upon, the method here described will disclose the contribution level required to approximate the desired objective.

The figures in Table V are not sufficient in themselves to determine the size of contributions necessary in the future to bring up to 50% of final salary the benefits for those who began at age 30 some years ago; but similar calculations disclose that for one with salary schedule 1A who began in October 1938, contributions from October 1943 on an 8.1% matched basis will produce a benefit of about 50% of final salary. For a similar person following 2C, contributions of 12.1% matched from now on would be necessary to produce the same benefit.

In statements made above, the expression "final salary" has been used freely because, in the examples discussed, no change in salary was assumed during the last ten years of service. Perhaps it is in order to suggest that no retirement plan should relate benefits to final salary because such an arrangement would be wide open to manipulation by merely increasing or decreasing an individual's salary shortly before retirement. There is a marked difference of opinion as to whether it is desirable to relate the ideal retirement income to average salary for all years of service or for, say, the last ten years of service.

We must not lose sight of the fact that in this discussion the chosen retirement benefit is used only as a guide in determining contributions and that, after contributions are decided upon, the benefit is to be just whatever the actual contributions purchase. For this purpose it is far better that we relate the chosen benefit to the average salary for all years of contributory service rather than to final salary because this gives a much higher prospect that desired objectives will be approached. All the examples show greater stability of ratios to average salary than to final salary for all years of service and it is obvious that this ratio will be disturbed far less than the ratio to final salary by capricious change in salary of an individual or by comparatively rapid change in salary level due to changes in economic circumstances. Those who favor benefits related to final salary can well point out that benefits so related are more apt to reflect the needs of retiring individuals. This brings us back to the question of whether it is better to determine benefits or contributions. To



determine benefits may better serve the needs of the individual; to determine contributions increases the likelihood that the institution will be able to meet its obligations as planned.

The above discussion has suggested a benefit of 50% of average salary or final salary but this is only for illustrative purposes. If this method is used, the assumed percentage must depend upon the circumstances at the institution where the study is being made. It is quite likely that if average salary for all years of contributory service is used as a basis, it will be desirable to aim at a higher percentage than if the average for the last five or ten years of service is considered. For some reason, the idea of a retirement benefit half as large as a chosen salary figure has appealed to the popular mind. It is very difficult to find any logical basis for this idea and an investigating committee should try to free itself from any such pre-conceived notion.

#### *Contributions Increased at Advanced Age*

Another method, already mentioned, of modifying present plans is to provide for a major increase in contributions at an advanced age such as 55 years. For one with salary scale 1A who starts contributions now at age 30, an increase from 5% matched to 10% matched at age 55 will increase the benefit at age 65 from 41.1% to 51.4% of average compensation.

As already pointed out, there is something to be said from the standpoint of the individual for a substantial increase in premiums at an advanced age because family responsibilities often drop off substantially before age 60 is reached. From the standpoint of the institution, there is little virtue in such a scheme, other than that it permits procrastination, because it increases the institution's percentage load for a particular professor just when his salary is apt to be largest. However, the method deserves consideration and there is, of course, no particular virtue in age 55. A modification would be to let the individual choose the age at which the increased matching contributions shall begin with the limitation that this be some place in the 50's. For instance, a 5% matched plan with a retirement age of 65 might be modified by requiring that matching contributions be increased at an age in the 50's by an amount varying with the age at which the increase is made as indicated below.

Age increase begins 50: 51: 52: 53: 54: 55: 56: 57: 58: 59

Matching % increase 3 : 3½ : 4 : 4½ : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 : 9 : 10

These figures are obviously arbitrary and the corresponding increases in benefits will show irregularities. Again, their only virtue is simplicity; equity is maintained approximately because the benefits are related to contributions. In the hope that they may be helpful to those interested in these ideas, these figures are presented in Table VI.

TABLE VI

*Increases in Contributions and Corresponding Increases in Benefits as Related to Average Compensation for Persons with Salary Schedules*

*1A and 2C and Contributions Beginning at Age 30*

(Assuming present rates continue to apply and no dividend credits)

Age extra contributions begin	Retirement age 65		Retirement age 66		Retirement age 67	
	Extra matched contributions	Extra benefit as % of average salary	Extra matched contributions	Extra benefit as % of average salary	Extra matched contributions	Extra benefit as % of average salary
	1A	2C	1A	2C	1A	2C
50	3	9.9	8.5	2	7.3	6.3
51	3½	10.6	9.1	2	6.8	5.8
52	4	11.1	9.5	2½	7.8	6.7
53	4½	11.4	9.8	3	8.6	7.3
54	5	11.5	9.8	3½	9.1	7.8
55	6	12.3	14.1	4	9.4	10.7
56	7	12.8	14.6	4½	9.5	10.8
57	8	12.8	14.7	5	9.4	10.7
58	9	12.5	14.3	5½	9.1	10.3
59	10	11.7	13.4	6	8.6	9.7

### Higher Entry Ages

The figures already given show the seriousness of delay in starting contributions to a retirement plan; it has been pointed out that each year's delay after age 30 means a reduction in the retirement benefit at age 65 of something like 3½%. The suggestion that retirement plans be amended if necessary to get contributions started early has already been stated.

But even if an institutional plan is so constructed that participation normally starts early, it will be desirable at times to em-

ploy individuals who have already served elsewhere and thus enter the retirement plan at higher ages. The usual method is to start such late-comers on the same contribution basis that applies to all others despite the fact that this gives prospect of a smaller retirement benefit under the particular plan. This presents no difficulty if the individual brings with him a substantial pension expectation from earlier employment.

An institution may very well make special contractual arrangements with particular individuals of unusual promise who come to it in middle age with no pension prospects carried over from earlier employment, to share contributions with them on an unusually high basis in order to build up retirement equities more rapidly than normal.

#### *Methods of Adjustment to Be Avoided*

Some college administrators, alert to the modesty of prospective benefits for recent entrants, are saying: The college cannot afford to add to its budget for retirement benefits, but it can emphasize that present plans will produce only inadequate benefits for new entrants and urge individuals to supplement these by increased personal contributions. This thought has all the weaknesses of voluntary plans for retirement income and the doubtful merit of being a cheap though temporary balm to the conscience of the present administrator.

Retirement plans are established by employers because individuals simply do not provide their own old age incomes voluntarily. Perhaps the college is no poorer than the individual staff members who draw their incomes from the college. The professor of a college that is convinced that it can pay no more can probably just as honestly claim he can pay no more; and, besides, the pressures of family life are such that decisions on a clear-cut and coldly calculated basis cannot be expected of him in the same way that they should be expected of a college board. At any rate, the individual who will claim he can pay no more is just the one who will reach retirement age with no income other than that produced by the retirement plan in which he is forced to participate.

As already mentioned, some college officers are suggesting that their institutions merely announce the intent to supplement, upon

retirement, the benefits provided by their formal plans. They recognize the difficulty of adding to costs now; they see that the need for supplementation is greater for some than for others; while accurate calculations are difficult, if not impossible, they are confident the cost will not be excessive;—why worry now?

Here we see the processes of cerebration that produced unfunded promises a generation ago and they are accompanied by all the old familiar pitfalls: indefinite promises to new entrants as well as to older staff members; benefits capriciously determined in individual cases by the board of trustees; liberality to the professor who has become popular, even though his service at the institution may have been only half as long as that of another; benefits related to final salary with the constant danger that prospective retirement may influence the final salary; professors tied to an institution because of the sacrifice in prospective benefits involved in separation; repudiation of hazy promises many years old, perhaps stated only orally and often by administrators no longer in office; young and vigorous college presidents blocked by budgets heavily mortgaged to make payments no longer related to current operations at their institutions.

If the cost cannot be large, there is little excuse for its avoidance now; if it may be large, it should not be saddled on future administrators. Furthermore, the experience of contributory retirement plans demonstrates without a doubt that staff members are more than willing to shoulder half the cost of a scheme in which they have confidence and whatever benefits may be paid as a result of unfunded promises on the part of the institution could be furnished with less cost to the college and far more satisfaction to the staff members by having them placed on a clear-cut contributory basis.

The suggestion crops up occasionally that the college supplement the benefits of the present plan in a definite manner and that it fund supplementary benefits through the purchase of annuities that involve a liability only in case the individual lives and continues in the college's service until retirement. The saving in contribution dollars introduced by omitting the death benefit is about 26% for men beginning at age 30, but less than 10% if the funding of a supplementary benefit begins at age 57.

This is far better than an unfunded pension promise but, of

course, it has the same weakness of tying a man to his job that characterizes an unfunded promise. Furthermore, it is based on an unfounded fear that the staff members will rebel at the suggestion that their contributions be increased. Whenever a college goes to its faculty with facts regarding the need for larger contributions and a statement of its willingness to increase its share, a requirement that the staff members or certain classes of them do likewise will, in the opinion of the writer, meet considerable enthusiasm and little resistance.

#### SUMMARY

The principal thesis of this paper is that, in studying the modification of retirement plans, one should define what seems to be a typical participant devoting practically all his working years to the service of the institution; decide what shall be the objective of the plan with respect to such an individual; and determine upon a scheme of contributions that will, so far as can now be seen, approximately support this objective. The next step is to see what modification is necessary to produce desired benefits for those for whom contributions have been below the schedule determined upon for the typical newcomer and for individuals who enter at advanced age.

Figures are given to show that no great refinement is useful in the salary scale for a typical individual but that the age at which participation in the plan begins and the age at which retirement benefits begin are all-important. Examples illustrate the methods suggested and give indications as to what to expect of different plans.

The writer considers this method of study fundamental. Its careful application by college administrators should lead them to do all that can be expected of them alone in the way of suggestions for revamping their retirement plans. Some desirable calculations will require tools not generally available, but, whenever an institution is ready to go seriously into details, the insurance company that issues the retirement annuity contracts will be ready to help.

## A STUDY OF DIVISIONAL ORGANIZATION<sup>1</sup>

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IN time of war, experimentation becomes the order of the day. Complacency is challenged; the binding chains of precedent and tradition are lightly cast aside; and the experimental approach is, perforce, adopted in the search for improved methods of attaining an objective—whether military, social, political, industrial or educational.

Faced with declining enrolments and at times even with a direct challenge involving the reasons for their very existence, liberal arts colleges during time of war are vitally concerned about improvements in the organization of their programs of instruction. Although some individuals look upon organizational changes in this period of fundamental uncertainties with antipathy, the fact that the causes of these very uncertainties are creating perplexing problems and new tasks not only for the present but also for the future should not be overlooked. Cognizant of

<sup>1</sup> At the Workshop in Higher Education sponsored by the Committee on the Preparation of Teachers of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held at the University of Minnesota in the summer of 1941, divisional organization was a topic of considerable interest. Investigation revealed that the literature on this subject was rather limited, and that in view of the current interest an additional study was warranted.

It was therefore decided by Earl J. McGrath, Dean of Administration at the University of Buffalo, and Wendell C. Nystrom, Head of the Department of Education, Wittenberg College, to undertake the present study. After the questionnaires were returned but before the tabulations were completed, Dean McGrath was called to active duty as a Lieutenant Commander in the United States Naval Reserve. As a result, the study was completed by Wendell C. Nystrom and A. Edward Patmos, Head of the Department of Economics, Wittenberg College. It was impossible for Dean McGrath to read the manuscript, and therefore the interpretations herewith presented are the responsibility of the two authors who have completed the study. To their knowledge, all previously published studies have been cited in the footnotes of the present article.



their responsibility to adjust to these basic changes, many institutions of higher learning are surveying their prevailing instructional procedures to discover whether or not the currently established methods are the most desirable to cope effectively with the new educational problems incident to the general cultural transition imposed by the war. Among the educational experiments of the past two decades which today are being carefully considered is the instructional program known as "divisional organization." This program is receiving especially careful consideration by many liberal arts college faculties and administrators who see in it a means of improving both the efficiency and quality of their academic service, without additional financial outlays.<sup>2</sup>

#### DEFINITION

The term "divisional organization" refers to the vertical<sup>3</sup> grouping of several related departments of instruction into units known as "divisions." These divisions exist for certain specifically enumerated administrative activities as well as for curricular development. This grouping, however, is not an amalgamation, as each department retains its identity and continues its separate existence within the division. The term "divisional organization," therefore, refers to the grouping of the departmental faculties and the arrangement of the several departmental curricula as a supplement to the existing departmental organization, and not as a substitute for it.

Although divisional organization is being used to an increasing extent among institutions of higher learning, it is important to note that as a principle of organization it is a means of achieving certain objectives, and not a detailed ready-made structure to be thrust uniformly into all colleges. The main objectives sought under divisional organization are *flexibility* and *synthesis* in the liberal arts instructional program. In an attempt to provide an improved liberal education, ways have been sought to eliminate the prevailing rigidity of academic programs, making them more

<sup>2</sup> Cf. E. C. Elliot, N. M. Chambers and W. A. Ashbrook, *Government of Higher Education* (American Book Company, New York, 1935), p. 200.

<sup>3</sup> The term "vertical" divisional organization refers to the grouping of several related departments, in contrast to "horizontal" division, which refers to the functional separation of the traditional first two years of generalized collegiate work from the last two years of specialization.

flexible so that they can be more readily adapted to serve best the needs and purposes of individual students. Adjustment to meet the requirements of individual students, however, is not sought at the sacrifice of integration. As a matter of fact, a second and equally significant objective of divisional organization is to develop a student's course of study into a coherent unit by synthesizing the distinct but related parts of the academic program.

The number of divisions and the particular divisions into which the several departments are grouped is a matter of structure, and not, therefore, of immediate concern at this point in an explanation of the general principle. Regardless of the particular structural plan, divisional organization means the grouping of departments for purposes other than the mere statement of graduation requirements and the selection of majors, minors and electives to assure a wide distribution of studies. In other words, the fact that a college has grouped the offerings of its curriculum into five fields of study and requires a student to complete a certain number of semester hours in each group before he can graduate does not mean that that institution is functioning on a divisional basis. Divisional organization is much more fundamental and far-reaching in relation to the intrinsic quality of the total educational process. It is concerned with a more thorough integration of the entire educational program of the liberal arts college than has been achieved under the traditional departmental organization.

This study is based upon replies to questionnaires sent to 472 liberal arts colleges on the approved lists of various regional accrediting associations in the United States in the spring of 1942. Of the 350 colleges from which replies were received, 122 were definitely organized on a divisional basis and another 28 were classified as partially so organized.

#### ADOPTION

The organization of the faculty and of the curriculum along divisional lines is without doubt one of the most significant developments in liberal arts colleges during the past twenty years, although during these years comprehensive examinations, honors courses, tutorial systems and other plans of individualization of the educational process have received much greater publicity. As

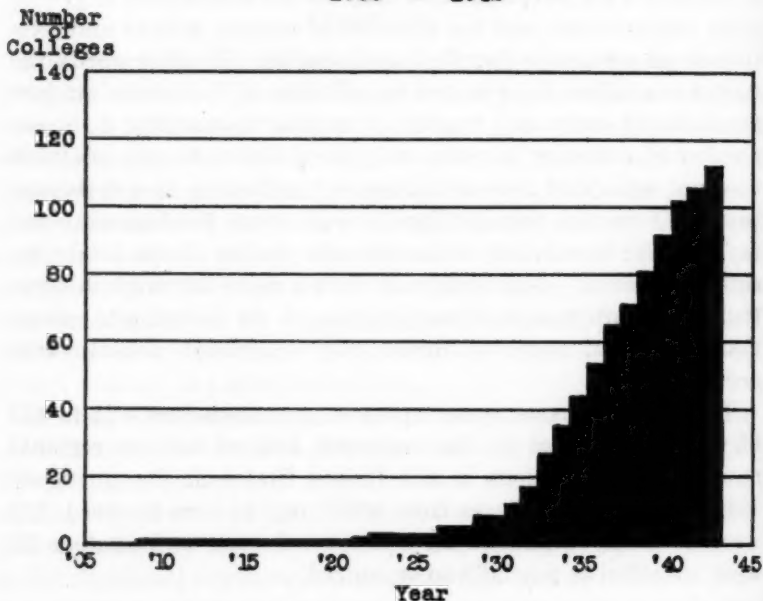
is revealed in Chart I, the trend towards divisional organization is, moreover, a comparatively recent one. Among the colleges considered in this study only one claims to have grouped its departments into divisions before the turn of the twentieth century. A second college dates the inauguration of divisional organization twelve years later—1908. Only ten institutions had ventured on a plan of divisional organization by the close of the "turbulent Twenties." The shift to a divisional basis, there-

Chart I

## GROWTH OF DIVISIONAL ORGANIZATION

Among 112 Reporting Colleges

1905 - 1942



fore, did not assume the proportions of a movement until 1932 when, in one year, ten colleges inaugurated some such plans. It was during the succeeding eleven years, 1932-1942 inclusive, that 95 of the 122 colleges studied in this survey turned to a divisional basis in the organization of their instructional programs.

This tendency towards the increasing acceptance of divisional organization among liberal arts colleges is corroborated by other

surveys made in previous years. In 1933, an examination of 676 college catalogues revealed that 245 institutions (36.2%) had divisional organization of the curriculum.<sup>4</sup> In 1940, a study of 276 institutions of higher learning in the North Central Association revealed that 98 (35.5%) of them were organized on a divisional basis.<sup>5</sup> Omitting the junior colleges, it was found that 38 per cent of the colleges and universities had some form of divisional organization. The survey made in 1942 on the basis of questionnaires received from 350 accredited colleges upon which the present study is based revealed that 122 (34.8%) were functioning on a divisional basis, and an additional 28 colleges (8%) were operating partially on a divisional basis. Thus by 1942, 42.8 per cent of the colleges had adopted some form of divisional organization. Not only has the number of colleges organized on a divisional basis increased considerably in the past decade, but many colleges have very recently installed it or at the present time are studying divisional organization with a view to its adoption.

That divisional organization has found particular favor among the small liberal arts colleges is indicated by the fact that 64 per cent of the colleges covered in this survey which were operating on a divisional basis had an enrolment in 1941-1942 of over 200, but less than 600.

#### DEPARTMENTAL GROUPINGS

Plans of divisional organization vary considerably. Each college has its own tailored divisional organization, especially devised to meet the peculiar problems of the particular institution. Liberal arts colleges frequently have between twenty to thirty-five departments of instruction. The number of areas into which

<sup>4</sup> It is to be noted that this study was concerned with the grouping of departments for curriculum purposes only and did not concern itself as to whether the divisions functioned administratively. Furthermore, the basis of this survey was printed catalogues, and many of the plans presented there appeared to exist on paper only. Robert L. Kelly and Ruth E. Anderson, "The Extent of the Divisional Development of the Curriculum," *Bulletin of The Association of American Colleges* (December, 1933), Vol. xix, No. 4, pp. 418-424, 423.

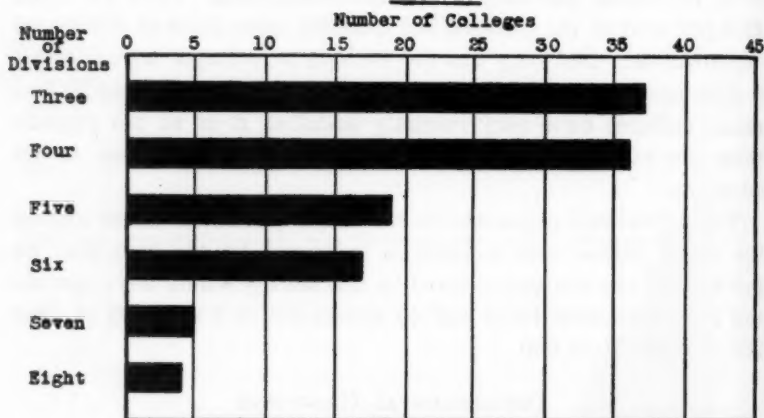
<sup>5</sup> A. J. Brumbaugh and William J. Haggerty, *Curriculum and Instruction in Higher Education*, Publication No. 15 (North Central Association, Chicago, 1940), pp. 32-34.

these departments are grouped shows wide variation, ranging up to twelve among the colleges covered in this survey. A careful analysis of the existing plans, however, reveals certain general prevailing structural patterns. A study of Chart II in which 118<sup>e</sup> reporting colleges definitely functioning on a divisional basis are classified, shows that approximately one third (31%)

Chart II

EXTENT OF UTILIZATION OF VARIOUS PLANS OF  
DIVISIONAL ORGANIZATION

As Found in 118 Reporting Colleges  
1942



of them were utilizing three-division plans, and approximately another third (30%) had four divisions. On the other hand, only slightly more than one third (38%) of the colleges had established five, six, seven or eight divisions. Approximately one sixth (16%) of the colleges were utilizing five groups, and one seventh (14%) had organized six divisions. Less than one twentieth (4.2%) of the colleges had established seven divisions, and only slightly more than one thirtieth (3.4%) of them had resorted to eight divisions. Therefore, there prevails at the present time an inverse relationship between the number of divisions and the extent of current utilization. Three- and four-division plans are found in more than 60 per cent of the colleges;

<sup>e</sup> Four of the reporting colleges provided adequate information on how their divisions functioned, but failed to indicate how they were constituted.

five- and six-division plans in more than 30 per cent of the colleges; and seven- and eight-division plans in less than 10 per cent of the colleges.

Although at present approximately the same number of colleges are operating on three divisions as there are using four-group plans, there is a pronounced tendency towards three divisions among the plans inaugurated very recently. In the five-year period from 1938 to 1942 not only did more colleges adopt three divisions than any other plan of grouping but more colleges followed this pattern of organization than had ever followed it in all previous years.

Plans of divisional organization differ not only in regard to the number of divisions, but even where there is agreement on the number of groups there are differences in regard to the composition of these divisions.

An examination of the departmental groupings and of the nomenclature of the colleges utilizing three divisions reveals that these usually are (1) Humanities, (2) Natural Sciences and (3) Social Sciences. Almost without exception colleges utilizing three divisions follow this plan. Occasionally the Natural Sciences division is divided into two groups, Physical Sciences and Biological Sciences, and the Social Sciences are combined with the Humanities. The second most frequently used name applied to the first division is "Languages, Literature and Art," and to the second division it is "Sciences." Most colleges in this group use the phrase "Social Sciences" as applied to the third division.

Typical of the four-division plans is a grouping of departments into (1) Humanities, (2) Natural Sciences, (3) Social Sciences and (4) Philosophy and Religion. Another frequently used title for the first division is "Languages and Literature," and another for the second division is "Mathematics and Natural Sciences." The division not found in the preceding plan, which appears in this organization, is the group formed by separating the philosophic and religious studies from the languages. Occasionally various departments with mutual interests scattered among the three divisions under the previously described plan are grouped with Philosophy and Religion. The department of Psychology coming from the Social Sciences or Natural Sciences, and the department of Education coming from the Social Sciences are



illustrations in point. It is this fourth division which causes the greatest variation among the four-division plans. The second most frequently occurring fourth division is that of Fine Arts. Another fourth division found on occasion follows the University of Chicago's plan of separating the Natural Sciences into two divisions, Biological Sciences and Physical Sciences. In a few cases the fourth division consists of Foreign Languages or Business.

The typical five-division organization consists of (1) Languages and Literature, (2) Natural Sciences, (3) Social Sciences, (4) Philosophy, Psychology, Religion and Education and (5) Fine Arts. When five divisions are used, the first division is only infrequently called the "Humanities." The reason for this is obvious, as the departments of Philosophy, Religion, Music and Fine Arts have been withdrawn to set up two additional divisions, with the result that only Languages and Literature remain in the first division. Under this plan the fourth division usually includes Psychology and Education along with Philosophy and Religion. The new division to emerge under this plan is that of Fine Arts. In a few cases the fifth division, rather than being that of Fine Arts, results from the separation of the fourth division into two groups, Philosophy and Religion, and Psychology and Education. The typical five-division method of grouping areas of instruction follows a recent analysis of educational problems by Cunningham, in which he agrees with Butler of Columbia and Hutchins of Chicago in postulating five fields of human knowledge: (1) the Arts, (2) Language, (3) Material World, (4) Human World and (5) Spiritual World. The corresponding instructional areas in liberal arts colleges are (1) Music and Fine Arts, (2) Languages and Literature, (3) Mathematics and Natural Sciences, (4) History and Humanistic Sciences and (5) Theology and Philosophy.<sup>7</sup>

Under a six-division plan the groups usually are (1) Languages and Literature, (2) Sciences and Mathematics, (3) Social Sciences, (4) Religion and Philosophy, (5) Fine Arts and (6) Physical Education. It will be noted that the prevailing name of the second division is "Sciences and Mathematics," and that

<sup>7</sup> W. F. Cunningham, *The Pivotal Problems of Education* (Macmillan, New York, 1940), pp. 290-303, 330.

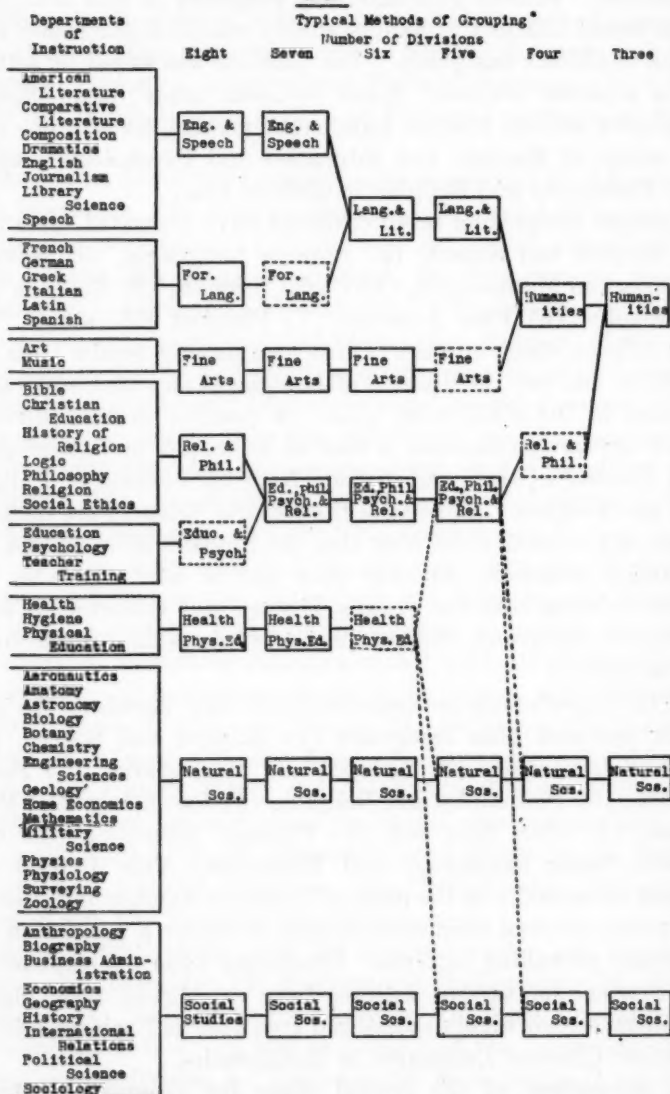
the title of the fourth division is "Religion and Philosophy." The new division to appear under this plan is that of Physical Education. Schools with extensive programs in this area have experienced difficulty in finding closely related departments with which to affiliate this group. The problem was solved by setting up a separate division. Sixth divisions other than Physical Education include Foreign Languages, making division one consist solely of English, and Education and Psychology, leaving only Philosophy and Religion in division four.

Colleges recognizing seven divisions have organized them into (1) English and Speech, (2) Foreign Languages, (3) Natural Sciences and Mathematics, (4) Social Sciences, (5) Religion and Philosophy, (6) Fine Arts and (7) Physical Education. The new division which appears in this plan usually results from the breaking into two the division of Languages and Literature as it appears in the six-division plan. A possible seventh division which appears on occasion is that of Education and Psychology as a division separate and distinct from the division of Philosophy and Religion. Sometimes the Natural Sciences are dichotomized in a seven-division plan also, the Physical Sciences and the Biological Sciences. Another plan seldom used separates the Social Sciences into two groups, History and Government composing the one group, and Business Administration and Economics the other.

If the departments are organized into eight divisions, the generally accepted plan recognizes (1) English and Speech, (2) Foreign Languages, (3) Sciences and Mathematics, (4) Social Studies, (5) Philosophy and Religion, (6) Psychology and Education, (7) Fine Arts and (8) Physical Education, the new division being Psychology and Education. This division appeared occasionally in the plans of a smaller number of divisions, but never occurred frequently enough to assume a position in the generally prevailing patterns. Depending upon the emphasis in the curriculum, various colleges have established their eighth divisions in some highly specialized area such as Business Administration, Classical Languages or Mathematics.

A comparison of the typical plans for grouping academic departments into three, four, five, six, seven and eight divisions, as presented in Chart III, reveals that the three basic divisions

Chart III  
GENERAL PREVAILING PATTERNS OF DIVISIONAL ORGANIZATION  
Found in 118 Reporting Colleges  
1942



\* The Division enclosed in broken lines is the one which is fused in the plan providing for one less group. Solid connecting lines indicate changes which occur to entire divisions as the number of groups is decreased. Broken connecting lines indicate the distribution of various departments as a division disappears.

are (1) Humanities, (2) Natural Sciences and (3) Social Sciences. As the number of divisions increases, the following divisions appear in this order: (4) Philosophy and Religion, (5) Fine Arts, (6) Physical Education, (7) Foreign Languages and (8) Psychology and Education. In many cases, because of the field of specialization of certain institutions, the existing structures of divisional organization differ slightly from these typical plans. In spite of these exceptions, however, there is a preponderant tendency toward the general patterns outlined above.

After the number of divisions and the general area of knowledge to be included in each have been decided upon, the actual grouping of most departments proceeds without controversy. There are, however, four departments—Education, Home Economics, Physical Education and Psychology—in connection with which much confusion frequently arises as to the division with which each of these departments should be allied.

Therefore, an examination of how these departments have been dealt with in existing plans will be illuminating. In the three-division and four-division plans, the field of Elementary and Secondary Education or Teacher Training, is found with greatest frequency among the Social Sciences. The most frequent exception to this is the grouping of Education with Philosophy and Religion. Under five-, six- and seven-division plans, Education is usually grouped with Philosophy, Psychology and Religion. In the eight-division plan, Education is usually combined with Psychology to constitute a separate division. Occasionally even among the plans calling for the larger number of divisions, it is considered a Social Science, and in a very few cases it is given an exclusive division.

Home Economics under the existing plans is regularly grouped with the Natural Sciences, regardless of the number of other divisions. Although occasionally Home Economics is grouped with the Social Sciences, Fine Arts or Education, such exceptions to the prevailing pattern of grouping are negligible.

The departments of Health and Physical Education which offer more than prescribed courses for academic credit have presented a serious problem to the organizers of plans of divisional organization. Although these departments under various systems are found in most of the different divisions with the exceptions of

Languages and Literature and of Foreign Languages, there is a pronounced tendency to group it with the Natural Sciences in the prevailing three- and four-division plans, with Philosophy, Religion and Education in five-division plans, and to make it a distinct division in six-, seven- or eight-division plans.

Psychology, resting upon biological findings but concerned with the social implications, presents the fourth department whose grouping is problematical. Like Physical Education, Psychology is found in most of the divisions under one plan or another. In three- and four-division plans Psychology is most frequently found with the Social Sciences. The other division in which it is often grouped is the Natural Sciences. If the divisional organization provides five, six or seven groups, Psychology is usually combined with Religion, Philosophy and Education. However, even with these larger numbers of divisions, it is not unusually exceptional to find Psychology in the division of Social Sciences. Under the prevailing eight-division plans, Psychology and Education are usually combined into a distinct division.

#### ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

With this picture as to how the various divisions are constituted under the prevailing structural plans of divisional organization, the functional problem of the internal organization and administrative machinery of the divisions inevitably arises. Usually there is an administrative head for each division. Of the 122 colleges examined in this survey, 110 had one individual in this position for each of the several divisions. This administrative head was designated "Chairman" in 73.7 per cent of the colleges organized on a divisional basis. In the additional 32 colleges, where one person is designated as the administrative head, various titles are used such as "Division Head," "Dean," "Director," "Group Head" and "Senior Professor." In two institutions committees function in this capacity. In the ten colleges having no one as head of the division, there is no indication of how the division functions administratively.

While there appear to be reasons for electing the chairman by the faculty members of the constituent departments of the division, other considerations seem to be more important, since chairmen are elected by this group in only 30 of the 122 colleges.

The majority (60%) are appointed. In 65 per cent of these cases, the appointment is made by the president, in 5 per cent by the president and the dean, and in 10 per cent by the dean. In 20 per cent of these colleges, the appointment is made by such groups as an Administrative Council, Executive Committee, Faculty Committee on Committees or Board of Trustees. In one instance the senior professor, and in two others the dean is *ex officio* chairman. In one college the chairmanship is rotated among the department heads.

Frequently in addition to the appointed chairman of the division, there is an executive committee. This committee is usually small—precautions being taken to prevent disproportionate representation of any department—and is elected by the faculty members of the constituent departments. Other details of the administrative structure are usually left to the discretion of the division.

#### FUNCTIONS

A third question which arises concerns the functions of the divisions, which in both structure and function are intermediate between the breadth of the college and the limitations of the constituent departments. The divisions are designed to retain the benefits and eliminate the defects of both. The divisions seldom have complete responsibility for the budget, selection of personnel, or changes in curriculum. The autonomy of the departments remains, and the functions of the divisions are generally advisory in nature—advisory to the department, to the faculty and to the administration. The plan appears to have functioned best (1) when the divisional chairman has had no administrative authority over the department heads, and (2) when the primary function of the division is advisory to the faculty and to the departments in order to achieve a more inclusive synthesis of the instructional program.<sup>3</sup>

Of the colleges organized on a divisional basis which are covered in this survey, only 21 per cent have abandoned department headships. Three colleges report that the functions remaining to these administrators are merely nominal, and four others have

<sup>3</sup> Leonard A. Ford, "An Appraisal of Divisional Organization," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin* (November, 1940), Vol. xxiv, No. 3, pp. 447-449.



department heads only in some departments. Four colleges gave no reply to this question. Nevertheless, 85 of the 122 reporting colleges retained functioning department heads after adopting divisional organization.

The divisions are established as administrative units primarily to concentrate attention upon those educational problems which on the one hand transcend departments, and which on the other are of special concern only to a restricted group within the entire faculty. Among the functions performed by divisions is the prescription of what shall constitute a divisional major, and the approval of the various divisional majors to be offered by the division. A second function of the division is performed by means of divisional staff meetings which broaden the perspective of instructors, thereby improving the effectiveness of the instruction.

In the third place, the division scrutinizes the course offerings of the constituent departments with a view to the establishment of more complete integration than has been attained under departmentalization. This is accomplished (1) through the elimination of undesirable duplication and overlapping, (2) through the establishment of sequences of courses within the divisions or through provision for dovetailing courses of different departments within the division, (3) through the organization of interdepartmental or survey courses when, upon investigation, the division finds them desirable, (4) through comprehensive examinations and (5) through the procedure of requiring all new courses or changes in courses offered within the division to receive the approval of the division before they are presented to the general faculty. All of these functions of the division in regard to the curriculum are usually advisory only. It makes its recommendations to the department or departments concerned or to the faculty. Of the colleges covered in this study, the divisional chairmen had a definite responsibility for curricular changes in 62 per cent of the institutions organized on a divisional basis. In only 24 per cent of the colleges were the divisional heads free from this responsibility. Fourteen per cent of the colleges left this question unanswered.

It is sometimes maintained that divisional organization provides more readily for "survey" courses which cross depart-

mental lines. More than a majority (54%) of the colleges included in this study which were operating on a divisional basis offered one or more survey courses. Twenty per cent of these colleges offered introductory survey courses on the freshman level, while an additional 34 per cent listed survey courses without indicating whether they were exploratory courses on the freshman level or integrating courses on the junior-senior level. Eight colleges reported that all survey courses had been discontinued. Many others volunteered the information that the value of the current courses was being seriously challenged by members of their faculties.

A few of the colleges offered the introductory courses as well as courses designed to help the students assimilate the knowledge already acquired in related fields of study. Finding an individual capable of conducting a course of this latter type presents a serious problem, inasmuch as few instructors possess the unusual combination of required specialization, comprehension, and teaching ability. On the other hand, if several instructors cooperate in directing the course, each one covers the area directly to his field of specialization. Unless there is an unusual degree of coordination, the instruction does not result in the students' gaining an insight into a broad and integrated area of knowledge, and the chief purpose of the course is defeated. Therefore, in order to assure the desired outcome, frequent conferences of the instructors to formulate the objectives of the course, to agree upon the procedures to be followed, and to determine the subject matter to be covered, together with their participation in each class session, have been found helpful.

Divisional comprehensive examinations were utilized in all divisions in 20 per cent of the colleges organized on a divisional basis. To a limited extent or on a departmental basis they were given in an additional 35 per cent of the colleges operating on some divisional plan. In contrast with their use in 55 per cent of the colleges organized on a divisional basis, among the 123 reporting colleges which were not functioning on a divisional basis only 36 per cent gave comprehensive examinations. It is interesting to note that in eight of these cases the senior comprehensive examinations cross departmental lines. Seventy-seven of the colleges thus organized did not answer this question.

A fourth function of the division is to make recommendations to, and to receive and consider recommendations from the college administrative officers. Here again the functions are largely advisory. Of the colleges included in the present study in only nine instances is the selection of staff members made by the divisional chairman. The selection of personnel is usually the responsibility of the president and the dean. In 42 of the reporting colleges, however, the divisional chairman makes recommendations in the selection. The division is not generally regarded as a budgetary unit even for the purpose of adjusting departmental budgets. This is apparent upon consideration of the fact that in only 8 per cent of the reporting colleges is responsibility for financial matters definitely lodged in the divisional chairman or some divisional committee. In 55 per cent of the colleges the division has no responsibility for the budget, and in only 23 per cent of the colleges does the divisional head even make recommendations on financial matters. Seventeen colleges offered no information on this point.

#### HORIZONTAL DIVISION

In contrast to the vertical grouping of related departments which has been under consideration up to this point, it is important to note the simultaneous development of a horizontal division of the instructional program.<sup>9</sup> The purpose of the horizontal division is to differentiate the functions of the first two years of college work from those of the second two years. The first two years are looked upon as a period of exploration, with a course of study definitely prescribed,<sup>10</sup> whereas the second two years are regarded as a period of specialization in which the student is permitted relative freedom of choice in the selection of his courses. This demarcation was adopted by 76 per cent of the colleges covered in this study which were organized on a divisional basis. Only 17 per cent of them acknowledge the lack of differentiation of the function of these two periods. A similar

<sup>9</sup> Robert L. Kelly, "Current Curriculum Trends: Bifurcation and Unification," *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges* (December, 1935), Vol. xxi, No. 4, pp. 542-551.

<sup>10</sup> Laura-May Spain, "Curriculum Divisions in the Colleges," *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges* (November, 1939), Vol. xxv, No. 3, pp. 453-456.

study made from 676 college catalogues in 1933 revealed that 27 per cent of the colleges having vertical divisions also had horizontal divisions.<sup>11</sup> Among 59 colleges which answered the question, 20 (34%) recognized the two levels of instruction by applying separate names to the two divisions. The most frequently employed names are (1) "Lower Division" and "Upper Division," (2) "Junior College" and "Senior College," (3) "Lower Level" and "Upper Level" and (4) "General College" and "Senior College."

Fifteen of the 28 colleges organized partially on a divisional basis, and 94 of the 200 non-divisional colleges differentiated the functions of the lower two years from those of the upper two.

In 70 per cent of the colleges organized on vertical and horizontal divisions, both the lower and the upper units are administered by the dean. In a few instances there is a dean at the head of each unit, or a dean of freshmen in charge of the lower unit. In others both units are administered by the president, the registrar, a faculty committee, or by the president and divisional chairman.

Fifty of the 350 colleges award a degree, certificate, or diploma upon completion of two years of college. Eighteen of these award the Associate in Arts Degree, and nine a Junior College Certificate. Certificates or diplomas are awarded in one or more fields such as teacher training, business administration, and secretarial training, by several colleges after the completion of two years of satisfactory college work.

#### ADVANTAGES

A number of advantages are claimed for divisional organization. These advantages tend to crystallize themselves into two general types: (1) flexibility in the student's program in regard to both distribution and concentration, and (2) integration of instruction and unification of the curriculum around larger areas of knowledge. These two general types of advantages are illustrated in the following explanations of four specific advantages which accompany divisional organization.

1. *Divisional Major*: In first place, divisional organization makes possible a broader and more functional field of concentra-

<sup>11</sup> Kelly and Anderson, *op. cit.*, p. 423.

tion for the student during his junior and senior years—a divisional major. In order to provide students with a training which will equip them to assume the obligations of modern citizenship, educators today are advocating a more balanced and integrated field of concentration rather than the rigid specialization which frequently accompanies traditional departmentalization.<sup>12</sup> It is felt that departmentalization may have resulted in too narrow specialization of the undergraduate student, without giving to him an adequate insight into the interrelationships which exist between specialized fields of study. It is maintained, therefore, that rather than emphasizing highly specialized knowledge and skills, it is desirable to encourage the undergraduate student to secure a more comprehensive, a more widely distributed, and a more integrated knowledge in order to provide a better opportunity to develop his processes of logical reasoning and his open-mindedness and in order to encourage his interest and his resourcefulness.<sup>13</sup> Plans of education which reserve most of the intensive specialization for graduate study are being looked upon with increasing favor.

Furthermore, divisional majors seem especially desirable in small colleges in which the teaching staffs of many departments consist of only one or two instructors. For a student to major in such a department is highly undesirable insofar as the student becomes indoctrinated with one point of view or captivated by the personality of a single instructor. A student who takes a major in a one-man department only too frequently studies the instructor rather than the subject matter.

Finally, divisional majors make possible a reduction in the variety of courses offered and a corresponding lightening of the burden imposed on the teaching staff.<sup>14</sup> It is obvious that, as majors are more narrowly specialized, the greater is the variety of courses which must be offered in order to enable major students to complete their work in the department. This has resulted frequently in the over-expansion of departments, and since these

<sup>12</sup> Clyde C. Seney, "Dartmouth—Has Done Something About It," *The Family Dollar* (December, 1940), pp. 12-15.

<sup>13</sup> Henry Suzzallo, "Higher Education and the Economic Situation," *Twenty-Seventh Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching* (The Carnegie Foundation, New York, 1932), pp. 25-32.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 29-30.



specialized advanced courses have very small enrolments, this has further resulted in an uneconomic handling of the teaching schedules.

As one surveys the constant stream of requests coming before the faculties or administrators that work completed in one department be accepted as credit towards a major in some other department, the desirability of establishing divisional majors at small liberal arts colleges becomes increasingly apparent. To grant such permission is to verify the fact that a student has completed certain specialization which he has not even undertaken. The frank acknowledgment of such a major as a divisional major is far preferable.

Such divisional majors are permissive rather than compulsory. Whether he selects a divisional major or a departmental major is optional with the student. The establishment of divisional majors in no way interferes with a student who wishes to meet the requirements for entrance into graduate study, or a professional school, or for certification by a State Department of Education.

2. *Correlation of Departments.* In the second place, divisional organization has resulted in a better correlation and integration of related departments. Through participation in divisional staff meetings instructors necessarily acquire a broader perspective with reference to the fields in which they work. They come to a better understanding of the work undertaken in related departments of the institution, and to a realization of the contributions which instructors in other fields have to make to the subject matter in which the specialized student is interested. Divisional staff meetings partaking of the nature of general forum discussion type make possible the "humanization" of the educational process, in all too many instances a merely mechanical acquisition of facts, at the present time. Specific problems and individual student needs may be considered more readily by a divisional group of the faculty, and simultaneously a more unified purpose is developed than is possible under the existing rigidly departmental organization.

Moreover, as instructors become more fully aware of the offerings of related departments, the advising of students by instructors is coordinated more effectively. Furthermore, divisional



staff meetings of instructors among whom similarity of interests runs high contribute to the individual development of the instructors through the mutual exchange of ideas on common problems such as subject matter and methods of teaching and of evaluation. Breaking down the high departmental barriers to make possible consistent cooperation and frequent consultation between the faculty of related departments is a serious problem. Although a closer coordination of the departments might be secured without organizing the college on a divisional basis, it is, indeed, significant to note that 88 per cent of the colleges covered in this study which were operating under divisional organization report that an appreciably better correlation of the work of related departments followed the inauguration of divisional organization.

3. *Elimination of Duplication.* In the third place, divisional organization has resulted in the elimination of superfluous courses or in the elimination of duplication within courses. Frequently courses covering practically the same subject matter are offered in more than one department. Even more frequently the content of courses in various related departments overlaps to a considerable extent. This duplication of effort, frequently found where departments have expanded rapidly, and where, like Topsy, the curriculum "just grewed," is a matter of great concern to a small college faced with a declining enrolment and reduced staffs. Duplication of parts of courses is many times commendable. This duplication, however, may be so expensive that it becomes a financial burden, involving the expenditures of income which otherwise might be expended for desirable enrichment of other areas of the curriculum. That the elimination of such duplication is highly desirable there is little doubt. That the divisional organization makes a positive contribution in this direction is substantiated by the report of 67 per cent of the colleges which are organized on a divisional basis to the effect that such organization has reduced curricular duplication.

4. *Improvement in Administration.* In the fourth place, divisional organization improves administrative organization. As departments become numerous, the central administrative authorities are taxed severely by their responsibility to be familiar with the problems and to evaluate the accomplishments

of each specialized department. Divisional organization reduces the number of different groups to which administrators turn for advice and recommendations, since each division becomes a convenient liaison between the various departments and the central administrators and, therefore, it simultaneously provides more balanced advisory judgments to the administrators. This is possible because the mechanism is provided for calling together the staff members of related departments for consultation and discussion of matters affecting common problems and questions of particular concern to the divisional faculties as distinct from the college faculty. Likewise, many matters in which all departments of a division are interested can be cleared through the divisional chairman rather than through various departmental heads. This reduces the number of individual problems submitted to the president, to the dean, or to faculty committees for recommendation or solution.

The authors have no illusions in regard to divisional organization as a solution of all problems in the liberal arts college, or as being in any sense a panacea. They fully realize that divisional organization has its weaknesses, that it is still in the experimental stage, and that the success or failure of any such plan depends entirely upon the attitude and the spirit of the faculty. Nevertheless, in view of its advantages as revealed in actual experience the authors feel that divisional organization has great potentialities for improving the quality of the educational service being rendered by liberal arts colleges.

## COLLEGE REGISTRATION SERVICE

STANLEY R. MARCH

ALUMNI SECRETARY, RUTGERS UNIVERSITY

**C**OLLEGE Registration Service was an outgrowth of a presentation made by Sumner McK. Crosby concerning the activities of the Yale Alumni War Service office at the Districts I and II (New England and Middle Atlantic States) Conference of the American Alumni Council in New York early in December 1942.

Several alumni secretaries who were present expressed a keen interest in this work on a national scale as a means of keeping college and university alumni in contact with one another during the hectic war years.

In January 1943 Mr. Crosby called two meetings of certain alumni secretaries and alumni to discuss the matter. Included among those present were:

Howard Reid, secretary of the Harvard Club of New York  
Benjamin A. Ross, alumni secretary of New York University  
representing the American Alumni Council

Robert Herrick, alumni secretary of Lehigh University

Joseph Bell, alumni secretary of Lafayette College

Stanley R. March, alumni secretary of Rutgers University

T. Hawley Tapping, alumni secretary of University of Michigan

J. Malcolm Luck, director of the Alumni Association of the University of Virginia

Minot C. Morgan, acting secretary of the Graduate Council and secretary of the War Service Office of Princeton University

Jarvis Cromwell, chairman of Alumni Committee on War Camps of Princeton University

Ranald H. Macdonald, chairman of Alumni Committee on War Camps of Yale University

C. B. Hughes of the University of Michigan

Harry J. Volk, president of the Rutgers Alumni Association

The consensus of this group was that no work of alumni offices or alumni was more important during these times than to enable college men to locate one another in strange places and thus receive helpful advice from friends even though they were thousands of miles from home. It was decided to go ahead with this as a nucleus of colleges and universities since several agencies

which were approached seemed unable to take on the work. Mr. Crosby reported that he had approval of high ranking officials in Washington. Mr. March of Rutgers agreed to act as the executive secretary until some full-time arrangement could be made. The setting into motion of the service involved enlisting the assistance of civilian alumni in cities and towns near military posts so that some public place was selected where college alumni in the fighting forces could register regardless of their institution, rank, branch of service, color or creed. The original participating colleges and universities which underwrote the expense of the office of the executive secretary were: Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Rutgers, Brown, Virginia, Lafayette, Lehigh, Vanderbilt, California, Centre, Connecticut, New York University and Rhode Island State. Mr. Morgan of Princeton acted as treasurer and payments were made in proportion to the number of living alumni of each college and university.

In the first report of progress sent out by the office of the executive secretary, fifteen "centers" were announced as functioning. Contacts with civilian college alumni overseas were made with the idea of establishing the service in combat areas while members of the executive committee, particularly Messrs. Reid of Harvard, Crosby of Yale and Morgan of Princeton were casting about for an organization to sponsor the work in order to expand its scope. In the meantime "centers" were springing up and college men were using the lists extensively. The first organized meeting (held in London, September 25, 1943) of college men in uniform to be held overseas since the beginning of World War II came about as the result of the establishment of the service in England.

Through President Walter A. Jessup of the Carnegie Corporation, Dr. Guy E. Snavely, executive director of the Association of American Colleges, became interested and agreed to "take the service under his wing." Dr. James E. Allen, former president of Marshall College of West Virginia, became the full-time executive secretary. Under his able leadership the number of supporting colleges and universities increased and more "centers" were reported in use. The college alumni magazines carried stories about the service and lists of the operating "centers."

In May 1943 the American Alumni Council became a co-sponsor and a joint executive committee was appointed.

In July 1943 word came to Dr. Allen that an Army officer in New Orleans, Louisiana, had deemed C. R. S. there of "aid and comfort to the enemy." Soon after, similar complaints came from Norfolk, Virginia and Denver, Colorado.

Dr. Snively called the executive committee together in order to approach the proper government officials for an official ruling. Mr. Morgan went to Washington in behalf of the service and for a time it looked as if it would be saved. Finally the jurisdiction of the ruling was placed in the War Department and G-2 rather than in the Office of Censorship and the Special Services branch of the Army.

Letters eventually came from Assistant Secretary of War John J. McCloy and Major General George V. Strong which read as follows:

21 July 1943

Dear Sir:

I have had the matter of the College Registration up with the Special Service Division and also with the Military Intelligence Division.

Although there may be some beneficial morale factor involved in the Service, the feeling seems to be that it does not outweigh the security disadvantages of placing in a hotel or college a registration list showing the name, rank and organization of graduates who are stationed in or in transition through a particular area.

The coverage contemplated by the College Registration Service would be practically nation-wide and, without wishing to appear either unappreciative of the benefits it might present or over-cautious in our security provisions, the War Department feels that the Service should not be encouraged and any steps you take in this direction would be appreciated. We are hesitant to issue any general order on the subject as we do not wish to indicate that it is a matter on which you are acting adversely to the interests of the Army.

I am sure that whatever steps you take to discourage the project will be satisfactory.

Sincerely,

(Signed) JOHN J. MCCLOY

• • • •

11 August 1943

Dear Sir:

Receipt is acknowledged of your letter of August 4 to Lieutenant Colonel Harris of this Division requesting ap-

proval of the College Registration Service which you discussed when you were in Washington on July 29.

This question has been discussed at some length in the office of the Assistant Secretary of War and it appears that the potential danger to the security of troop movements must be considered to outweigh the advantages to be obtained from the Service in stimulating the morale of the officers or soldiers using this service.

It is regretted that a more favorable reply cannot be made at this time and it would be appreciated if the Association of American Colleges could dispense with this particular activity for the duration of the war.

Sincerely yours,

(Signed) GEO. V. STRONG  
Major General  
A.C. of S., G-2

At the time the death knell of this worthwhile work was tolled one hundred and forty-seven American colleges and universities, representing forty states and the District of Columbia were participants. Checks from fourteen which were received after receipt of Mr. McCloy's letter were returned.

Interestingly enough, forty-one C. R. S. "centers" in the United States and two in foreign areas were in operation at the time the War Department called it "quits." Nearly one hundred additional "centers" were on the verge of opening when the untimely end came.

The last list of operating "centers" was as follows:

#### CALIFORNIA

Fresno—Hotel Californian  
Long Beach—Hilton Hotel  
Los Angeles—USO Club, Pacific Mutual Building  
Biltmore Hotel  
Ambassador Hotel  
Union Terminal  
San Francisco—The Palace Hotel

#### CONNECTICUT

New Haven—Dwight Hall, YMCA, Yale, 65 High Street  
New London—Mohican Hotel

#### COLORADO

Denver—Brown Palace Hotel



**FLORIDA**

Jacksonville—George Washington Hotel  
Miami—Columbus Hotel  
Tampa—Tampa Terrace Hotel

**GEORGIA**

Atlanta—American Women's Voluntary Service, 294½ Peach-  
tree Street  
Savannah—USO, DeSoto Hotel

**INDIANA**

Indianapolis—Claypool Hotel

**IOWA**

Ames—Memorial Union, Iowa State College

**KENTUCKY**

Louisville—Brown Hotel, Fourth and Broadway

**LOUISIANA**

Monroe—Hotel Francis

**MARYLAND**

Baltimore—Emerson Hotel

**MASSACHUSETTS**

Cambridge—Phillips Brooks House, Harvard  
Springfield—Kimball Hotel

**MISSISSIPPI**

Biloxi—Chamber of Commerce Building

**MISSOURI**

Kansas City—Hotel Continental  
St. Louis—Coronado Hotel

**NEW JERSEY**

Atlantic City—Philo House, Tennessee Avenue and Boardwalk  
Newark—Robert Treat Hotel  
New Brunswick—Hotel Roger Smith

**NEW YORK**

Buffalo—Hotel Statler, Niagara Square  
Rochester—Hotel Seneca

**OHIO**

Cleveland—Hotel Statler  
Dayton—Biltmore Hotel

**PENNSYLVANIA**

Harrisburg—Penn Harris Hotel

**RHODE ISLAND**

Providence—Providence Biltmore Hotel

**TENNESSEE**

Chattanooga—Read House

Nashville—Hermitage Hotel

**VERMONT**

Burlington—Hotel Vermont

**VIRGINIA**

Lexington—Main Building (Front lobby), Washington and  
Lee University

Norfolk—Monticello Hotel

Old Point Comfort—Chamberlain Hotel

**WASHINGTON**

Seattle—Service Men's Club, 1322 Second Avenue

Officers Information Service, 417 University Street

**HAWAII**

Honolulu—Halekai (for officers)

Maluhia (for enlisted men)

**ENGLAND**

London—Editorial Office, *Stars and Stripes*

## COMMISSION ON WARTIME PLACEMENT OF COLLEGE FACULTIES

JOHN F. SLY

PROFESSOR OF POLITICS, PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

MARY EWEN PALMER

HARVARD GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

**I**N November, 1942, the Association of American Colleges established the *Commission on Wartime Placement of College Faculties*

to study ways and means of finding places in the war effort for members of the faculties of the colleges whose services will not be needed for teaching during the emergency.<sup>1</sup>

Colleges and universities faced a most disturbing period. They were losing their men students over eighteen years of age. Their use for army and navy training purposes was the announced policy, but the conversion was slow, the program undetermined and faculty requirements uncertain. There was the greatest anxiety on the part of executive officers and extreme unrest among faculty members throughout the country. All signs pointed to a violent readjustment of college personnel; and in many instances, the continued existence of the institution during the emergency was thought to be in danger.

Faced with these urgent conditions, the *Commission* promptly established a working organization. The Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation each granted \$5,000 to finance the project. A central office was established in New York City in space provided by the Association of American Colleges; and staffed with an executive secretary, Mrs. Mary Ewen Palmer, and two assistants.

The country was divided into thirteen administrative regions, coterminous with the United States Civil Service Commission districts; and a regional office, located at a leading college or uni-

<sup>1</sup> The *Commission* was composed of the following members: President Harold W. Dodds, Princeton University, *Chairman*; President Carter Davidson, Knox College; Vice-Chancellor R. H. Fitzgerald, University of Pittsburgh; Dean Mark H. Ingraham, University of Wisconsin; President Mordecai Johnson, Howard University; President Goodrich White, Emory University.

versity, was established in each region.<sup>2</sup> Each regional office was placed in charge of a regional director appointed by the executive office of the participating college or university.

All regional expenses were borne by the participating colleges. The expense of the central office was paid by the Association of American Colleges from the Carnegie and Rockefeller grants. Princeton University provided all office equipment for the central office and donated the services of Dr. John F. Sly, Professor of Politics, to direct the project.

The central office prepared an occupational questionnaire for the use of all registrants. It set up a filing plan, a correspondence system and reporting forms. Sample sets of these materials were distributed to the regional offices, which, in most cases, established their own operations to conform with the central office. All colleges that were members of the Association were notified by the chairman of the *Commission* of the available service. Press releases were prepared and issued and announcements sent to selected professional journals. The program was in full operation by February 1, 1943, and was concluded on August 31, 1943.

At an early session, the *Commission* adopted these principles to guide the program:

Its activities were to be confined to the college and university level—junior colleges and secondary schools were excluded from the program. This was necessary to limit the scope of the work as well as to permit a single type of operation.

All colleges and universities—whether members of the Association of American Colleges or not—were to be admitted to the program. This was to give as wide a service as possible at the college level.

The program was to be developed through the executive officers of colleges and universities. Individual applications were to be received but not solicited. This was to prevent

<sup>2</sup> Regional offices were established in the following universities: *Region I*, Harvard University; *Region II*, Princeton University; *Region III*, University of Pittsburgh; *Region IV*, Johns Hopkins University; *Region V*, Emory University; *Region VI*, University of Cincinnati; *Region VII*, University of Wisconsin; *Region VIII*, State University of Iowa; *Region IX*, University of Missouri; *Region X*, Louisiana State University; *Region XI*, University of Washington; *Region XII*, University of California; *Region XIII*, University of New Mexico.

undue disturbance of college faculties and to avoid flooding the country with "another batch of questionnaires."

There was to be no attempt to "drum up" trade. Following appropriate publicity, all those who sought the assistance of the *Commission* were welcome, but there was to be no "drive" for registrations.

The project was to last during the conversion period only—estimated from four to six months.

Although the *Commission* was established to meet an emergency situation among college faculties, and was designed as a practical attempt to assist in solving a difficult and urgent problem of readjustment, it was also an experiment in academic placement. The program was probably the first non-commercial teacher placement project at a national college and university level that was open to *all* teachers without regard to professional or specialized fields of interest.

There can be no doubt that the work of the *Commission* was of practical value in four ways:

By providing college executives with selected lists of available employees at a time when faculty replacements were exceedingly difficult.

By offering encouragement and opportunity to faculty men and women who considered they were in the employment market.

By making available as many qualified persons as possible for service in the war effort.

By sustaining the morale of important portions of faculty personnel during a trying period of adjustment.

The following is a brief statement of operations at the close of registration in the central office, August 15, 1943:

#### I. REGISTRATION

		<i>Per cent of Form I distributed</i>
Total number of Form I (occupational questionnaire) distributed .....	4339	100
Total number of Form I returned, i.e., total registrants .....	654	[15]
Men registrants      462 (71%)		
Women registrants   192 (29%)		

## II. EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Number of employment sources filed with the Commission .....	279
College sources           196 (70%)	
Other than college   83 (30%)	
Employment opportunities received by the Commission .....	617
Employment suggestions made to registrants .....	1511

## III. PLACEMENTS

		<i>Per cent of total registrants</i>
Total registrants reporting placement .....	116	18
Placed directly by the Commission .....	49	[7.5]
Reemployed by own college .....	26	[4.0]
Placed through registrants' own efforts	38	[6.0]
Entered armed forces .....	3	[0.5]

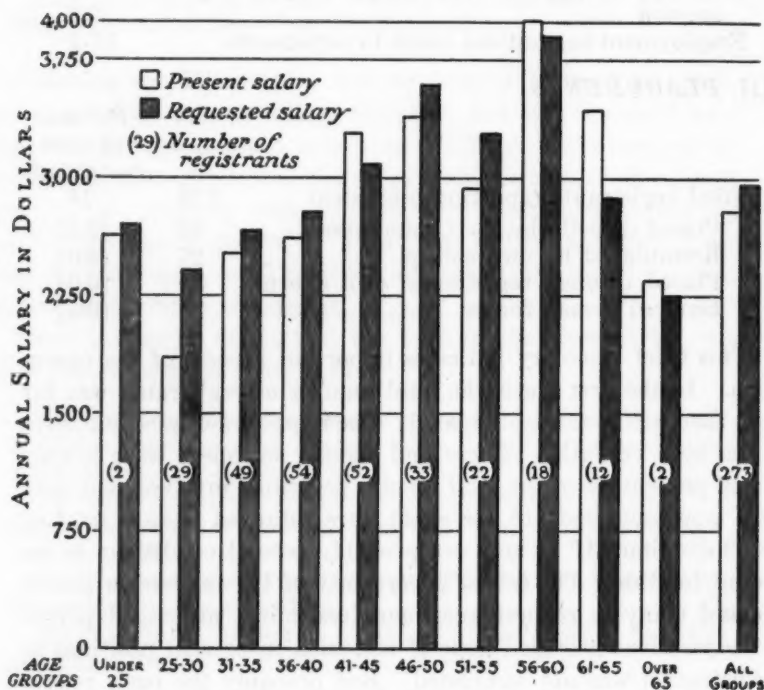
This brief summary indicates important aspects of the operation. In the first place, the total number of registrants was far less than was at first anticipated. The requests for questionnaires from both executive officers and faculty members were a very small percentage of the total faculty personnel involved, but only 654 questionnaires (15 per cent) were returned from a total of 4339 distributed.<sup>3</sup> There are probably several conditions to account for this. The initial uncertainty of the conversion period caused many to request questionnaires, but a prolonged period of adjustment provided hope of retention in present positions so registration was not completed. But probably the basic reason was that executive officers of colleges and universities were reluctant to encourage replacement, pending a clearer definition of faculty needs in the war picture, and were equally hesitant to provide their faculties with questionnaires because of developing a "defeatist" attitude within their institutions.

It will be noticed that the employment sources (separate employers seeking assistance) filed with the *Commission* were 279, of which 196 (70 per cent) were college sources and 83 (30 per cent)

<sup>3</sup> This ratio (15 per cent) is probably high. It assumes that every questionnaire reached an individual. About 1500 questionnaires were, however, sent to regional officers or to college executives for distribution. How many of them reached individual applicants is not known.



were other than colleges; that is, industries, government agencies, social service organizations, the army and navy, civic organizations, secondary schools, etc. But of the total number of employment opportunities received (requests for filling specific positions) about 80 per cent were for college teachers.\*

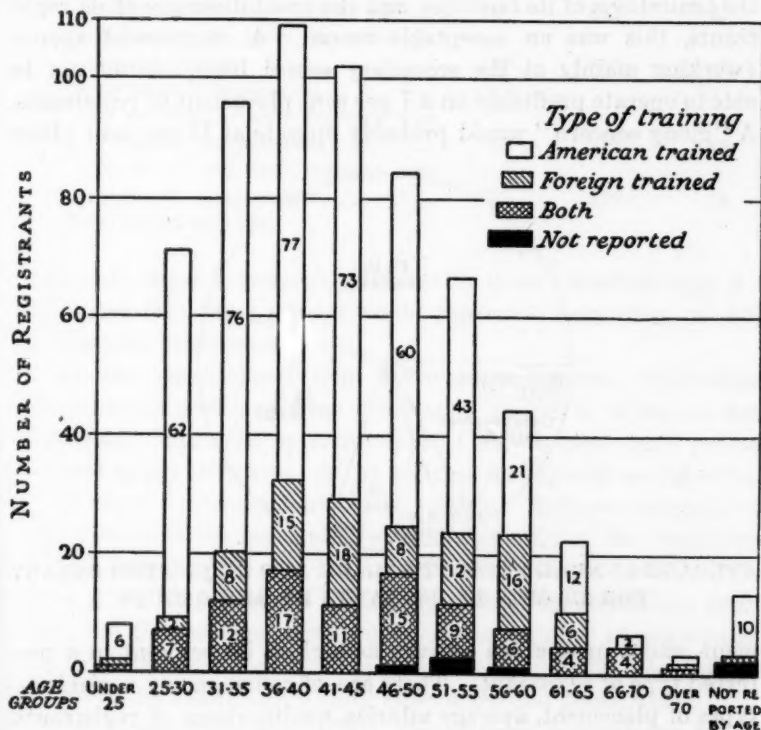


#### DISTRIBUTION OF 624 REGISTRANTS BY TYPE OF DEGREE

This was somewhat of a surprise. The *Commission* having been created to "assist teachers who will not be needed during the emergency" found its principal emphasis in replacing a teacher shortage. But this is better understood when the employment opportunities are examined. For example, as of April 30, 1943, 426 separate employment opportunities were available in the central office; but 140 of these (33 per cent) were requests

\* This figure is an estimate. Often requests would be received without enumeration of the number of positions to be filled, but it is thought that 80 per cent is substantially correct.

for chemists, mathematicians or physicists which were almost unobtainable. Indeed, the registrants professionally qualified to fill such positions were less than one-third of the requests, and fully half of these were not available because of restrictions surrounding the appointment.<sup>5</sup>



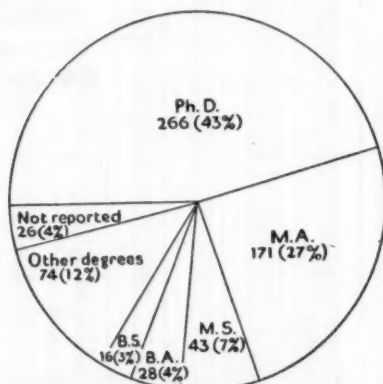
DISTRIBUTION OF REGISTRANTS BY AGE AND BY FOREIGN OR AMERICAN TRAINING

Of the total registrants (654), 116 (18 per cent) reported to the *Commission* that they had been placed in suitable positions. Although it is difficult to say accurately how many were placed directly or indirectly by the *Commission*, 49 registrants (7 per cent) reported placement directly by the *Commission*; 26 (4 per cent) were reemployed by their own colleges; 38 (6 per cent)

<sup>5</sup> Of 430 registrants listing "first choice" of occupational fields, about one-third were in the social sciences.

reported placement through their own efforts. It is probably fair to assume that many more registrants were placed in one way or another, but these were all that were reported to the central office.

Considering the short time the *Commission* was in existence, the limitations of its facilities, and the great diversity of its registrants, this was an acceptable record. A commercial agency (working mainly at the secondary school level) would not be able to operate profitably on a 7 per cent placement of registrants. A "going concern" would probably operate at 15 per cent place-



#### AVERAGE ANNUAL PRESENT SALARY AND REQUESTED SALARY FOR 270 MEN REGISTRANTS BY AGE GROUPS

ment, and a prosperous concern as high as 50 per cent in a preferred type of registrant. There are, of course, many variables—types of placement, average salaries, qualifications of registrants, *etc.*—but no commercial agency could profitably receive "all comers" as registrants; indeed, it would not, generally, accept applicants whom it did not feel reasonably certain could be placed.

The placement problem is closely governed by the type of registrants seeking placement. A world at war has brought many refugee scholars to America. Disturbed conditions affected most seriously faculty members in the older age groups. Many who had held a single position for long periods of time were difficult to adjust, and the rising cost of living encouraged requested increases in compensation that were, at times, difficult to meet.

The following analysis of the total registrants, as of August, 1943, illustrates these points:

<i>Registrants*</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Number reporting</i>	<i>Per cent of number reporting</i>
Refugee registrants .....	87	618	14
Registrants over 50 years of age .....	141	611	23
Registrants 10 years or more in present position .....	149	536	28
Registrants requesting: <sup>c</sup>			
25 per cent or more increase over present compensation .....	95	375	25
Up to 25 per cent increase over present compensation .....	102	375	26

\* Total registrants 624.

Although there is some duplication in these classifications, it is estimated that these groups would represent more than one-half of the total registrants.

On the employment side there were likewise restrictions. Government positions were practically closed to aliens as were also many industrial opportunities. Colleges were hard pressed to meet salary increases. Many colleges had special qualifications to fit their denominational backgrounds. Refugee scholars—in many respects the best qualified professionally of the registrants—were difficult to fit into the American curriculum. While at the close of the *Commission's* work, employment opportunities on file with the *Commission* about equalled the number of registrants, the qualifications requested by the employers were generally in excess of the available training experience and background.

The *Commission* made 1511 employment suggestions to 406 registrants. One hundred and sixty-two (26 per cent) of total registrants (624) were suggested for 4 or more employment opportunities; 129 (21 per cent) for 2 or 3 employment opportunities; 115 (18 per cent) for 1 employment opportunity. The remainder (215) was composed largely of the registrants listed above, and were either suggested to employment officers in groups or were found unfitted for available positions.

<sup>c</sup> Eighty-two (22 per cent) registrants reporting requested their present salary and 96 (26 per cent) were willing to take less than their present salary.

At the height of its operation in May, the *Commission* sought to check the need and effectiveness of its service through a post card questionnaire directed to selected employers and registrants in the files of the *Commission*. The results of this survey were as follows:

## EMPLOYERS' CARDS

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
Total cards distributed .....	100	—
Total cards returned .....	72	72

*Question one:* Have the employment suggestions by the *Commission* aided in your placement problems?

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
Yes .....	16	22
To some extent .....	17	24
No .....	25	35
Blanks .....	14	19

*Question two:* With how many of those suggested have you been in communication?

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
In communication .....	34	47

*Question three:* How many of those suggested have been employed?

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
Employed .....	5	7

## REGISTRANTS' CARDS

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
Total cards distributed .....	245	—
Total cards returned .....	193	79

*Question one:* How many potential employers identified with the *Commission* have communicated with you?

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
In communication .....	95	49

*Question two:* How many have offered you employment?

		<i>Per cent of total returned</i>
Offered .....	27	14

**Question three:** Have you accepted employment through the efforts of the Commission?

	Per cent of total returned	
Yes .....	8	4
No .....	164	85
In part .....	1	.....
Blanks .....	20	10

**Question four:** Have the efforts of the Commission been of assistance to you?

	Per cent of total returned	
Directly .....	34	18
Indirectly .....	27	14
Not at all .....	98	50
Blanks .....	34	18



## CHRISTIAN EDUCATION IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS UNDER CHURCH AUSPICES IN TIMES OF WAR

M. LAFAYETTE HARRIS

PRESIDENT PHILANDER SMITH COLLEGE

**T**HE subject is a difficult one. It contains two irreconcilable, if not contradictory, concepts. There is the Christian way of life on the one hand, and the way of force on the other. A series of dilemmas follows; the Church and Nationalism, Religion and Politics, the abundant life and tragic death, peace on earth and good will to all men and war with its bitter hatred. Midst these confused feelings and mixed emotions, it is an easy matter for professional patriots, and even some well meaning people, to become enraged at any objective presentation of the role of the Church College in a war-torn world.

Definitely conscious of the danger involved, I make the adventure in defense of Christian Higher Education on the platform of Truth. For only truth moves in a straight line, makes no concessions, is invisible to the prejudiced, disowned by the intolerant, imitated by the false, misinterpreted by the erratic, denied by the unbelieving, despised by the wicked. It is everybody's friend and brother, but as hard as tempered steel to those who try to bend it. Yet, to know it is to enjoy the highest freedom; to reject it is to invite the most tragic doom. To avoid this tragic doom I find myself under obligation to say some things which may not receive popular acclaim.

Lord Justice Russell once said that civilization is not dominion, wealth and material luxury; nay, not even a great literature and education widespread, good though these may be. Civilization is not a veneer; it must penetrate to the very heart and core of the societies of men. Its true signs are thoughts for the poor and suffering, chivalrous regard and respect for women, the frank recognition of human brotherhood, irrespective of race or color or nationality or religion, the narrowing of the domain of force as a governing factor in the world, abhorrence of what is mean and cruel and vile, ceaseless devotion to the claims of justice. We must agree with this basic philosophy as stated by Lord Justice Russell. The supreme purpose of civilization is to humanize

man. Education thus becomes the technique for making man essentially human. It is fundamentally this humane element that enables him to create and appreciate the higher values of his experiences. But all values of judgment are fundamentally moral in nature and presuppose some general frame of reference or standard by which their validity may be determined.

The Church is the Institutional embodiment of our Supreme Sense of Destiny. The simple truism that the concept of organized religion is the ultimate criterion of value in any organized society has the weight of necessity. The concept of Christianity as the criterion of value in our own western civilization is categorical. Christianity is our Supreme Destiny, and the Church is its agency of organic action. The concepts of Freedom, Political Democracy, Religious Tolerance, Economic Exchange and personal responsibility are rooted in the basic concept of Christianity. "I am come," saith the Master, "that ye may have Life more abundantly." "Ye shall know the Truth and the Truth shall make you free." All Education, public, private and that under direct Church auspices, must have the influence of the Church.

The Church College must maintain both an organic and a functional relationship to the Church. By its very nature and existence it is an organic part of the Church. Too frequently Christian Higher Educational Institutions have been guilty of policies which indicated a confusion of the Church College with the Private College. There should be a fundamental difference. In fact, one of our greatest dangers is that the Church Colleges frequently become "too private." This follows where a Christian constituency either neglects, or sells out its interest to the highest bidder.

Given this organic relationship, what should and must be the role of the Church College? There is an almost infinite number of areas which could be dealt with in answering this question. For convenience, only a few of the more obvious will be noted here. Accepting the philosophy of Education as a humanizing process, the Church College must place major emphasis upon the area of Human Relations. In time of war, there is a grave danger that immediate needs requiring technical skills and regimented action, as important as they are, will be promoted at the

expense of those finer qualities so very basic to the things for which we fight. True, the Church College is a part of our social and national fabric, and as such, must contribute whatever it can when our country is in danger. But it must not forget the fundamental values which true Education, true political Democracy and even our Christian sense of Destiny must rest upon. Only a careful, sympathetic and scholarly exploration of Human Relationships can give to its efforts a true sense of direction. This is a most opportune time for the Church College to revive the Humanities and the Social Sciences. There is no field of study so important as the study of man and his fellow men.

The Church College must concentrate upon the field of human attitudes and emotions. Too often men know the right, but do the wrong because they lack the moral motive power. The emotions are our basic drives, for ill or good, depending upon prior conditioning. Too often it is assumed that Higher Education must be purely "objective," and objectivity is interpreted to mean a "lack of enthusiasm." So the poor Freshman whose greatest need is inspiration must have his spirit chilled by the cold and unsympathetic lectures of the "Scholarly Professor" who has pledged himself to the "spirit of objectivity" at all costs. The poor confused Freshman "flunks," and thus a potential genius becomes a Cynic. This kind of Education has no heart; it kills the spirit. The Church College must possess a spirit to inspire. Human beings, Faculty members and Students, not excepted, need inspiration. The Church College faces a new and great challenge in this area as a result of the war. The nations of the world are now busy in the effort to cultivate "hate" on a wholesale basis between members of the human family. Hate must always be directed upon an object. The soldier is taught to "hate" so he can "kill" with ease. The danger is in the fact that exposed to the stimulus of hate for so long a time people may be extended beyond the limits of spiritual elasticity. Men and women bring their attitudes of hate back into their civil communities. There they will fix them upon those human beings most exposed to their dislikes. This will mean bitterness and bloodshed at home. The Church College can do much towards meeting this problem by concentrating now on providing a type of broad vision, sympathetic and understanding leadership for the trying post-war period just ahead of us.

There is reason to believe that the world is looking towards the Christian College to make a definite contribution to the job of moral and spiritual reconstruction. Adequate materials are free. The community with all its institutions and agencies, and human beings constitute a free laboratory. The Church College must offer the basic courses for a Liberal Arts training, but it must not be fooled into mimicking the larger Universities and Public Institutions by spreading its effort too thin on areas in which it cannot afford necessary equipment to do a good job. This, of course, raises the question of the place of Technical and Vocational training in the Church College. It seems fair to say that training in these areas is specifically the responsibility of the State or Organized Society. Pursuant to this philosophy, the Federal Government, the State, the County, and Municipalities are assuming full responsibility for such training, and financing it out of the public purse. The tendency is to shift the major portion of this training into the Elementary and Secondary Schools, with advanced technical training at the State University. One conclusion seems inevitable. While the Church College may offer purely vocational subjects if it has available equipment, personnel and resources, such can never be its primary purpose. It is not sufficient merely to train man to make a living. It is most important that he be trained to live. This is the essential purpose and task of the Church College.

The Church College must somehow help individual students and teachers develop a composite philosophy of life not entirely contingent upon the emptiness provided by "things" alone. Jesus so admonished his Disciples in the Gospel of Luke when he said that a man's life consisteth not in the abundance of the things he possesseth. Many a man has turned sour, and even died with a broken heart because his College had somehow led him to believe that collegiate degrees meant an automatic success in physical things. It is a primary responsibility of the Church College to make manifest the service motive. "But whosoever will be great among you, let him be your minister; and whosoever will be chief among you, let him be your servant."

A few days ago, on the occasion of his 80th birthday, the great Henry Ford was asked for his formula for success. His simple reply was, find a real constructive human need, or service you can

supply. Once this is done, the joy is in serving. Money becomes incidental, serving only as a medium of exchange between social values. Yes, happiness is self-realization. Man is happiest when he feels his efforts in harmony with his sense of Supreme Destiny. And this is the Christian Ideal. This impelling force carries the weight of Moral Responsibility upon men and women whose minds have been trained that they direct their total effort in such fashion as to make each circle of their contact the better through the influence of their presence and service. The service motive must be the "dominant motif" of the Church College.

It is the responsibility of the Church College to train for Leadership. This statement has a twofold significance. The philosophy of the Church must be expressed through all areas of home and community relationships. The Church College must produce leaders of broad vision and sympathetic understanding of the principles of Personal Freedom so fundamental in a Political Democracy. Ministers, Doctors, Lawyers, Teachers, Business men, School Principals and men of Public life, who have been trained in the Church Colleges must be the leaven of their Community in the ceaseless devotion to the claims of justice. The Church College, by its very nature and purpose, must limit its enrollment, and its most effective means for lifting the masses of our people must be through those graduates and ex-students who will become ambassadors of the faith and zealous exponents of Christian Community service. They will become the Sunday School workers, Youth Leaders, Community Servants, and thus contact all forms of community life, from the Home and Church, back to the College. This must somehow be made emphatically more important than mere academic achievement while in College. The truth shall make you free. But men must know that the Principle of Freedom is limited by the Principle of Reciprocity so fully expressed in the Golden Rule.

There isn't much to be said about specific curriculum matters. The aim here is to explore a general philosophy or First Principles, with the belief that detailed techniques will be conditioned by local circumstances. However, a few observations on composition and personnel must be made. The Church College must have a most competent faculty, although definitely limited in size. They must be highly consecrated men and women. Vacancies



should not be filled from "paper credentials." This means the Church College must move toward paying higher salaries than the average public institution. This proposition must be taken with all the seriousness it implies.

The Church College must have a limited, but highly effective curriculum. It must do the job it proposes to do just a little better than non-Church institutions. The Church must never become identified with the "Inferior" as a satisfactory status.

The Church College must concentrate on a limited but highly select student group on the basis of their abilities and purposes. Above all, it must not suffer from "jumboism" or the concept that large enrollments can be equated in terms of educational effectiveness. Undesirable and limited ability students should be directed to institutions on the tax purse, as the Church has a right to expect the highest possible service returns on its investments. On the other hand, the Church College must find a way to make possible training for those brilliant, but poor young people. It must let no man's poverty condemn him. The Church College must also maintain the best standards of scholarship in faculty and student body. How well these objectives can be achieved will depend largely upon the supporting Churches and their leadership. This can be exercised in many constructive ways. Two suggestions may be mentioned here. Each supporting Church could direct the most promising High School graduates in its membership to enroll at its Church College. It could also designate scholarships to its College preferably to help its own students, and such students could foster special summer projects under joint auspices of College and Church. The local Church Board of Education could well promote the project, giving a major responsibility to the young people. It is regrettable that, far too frequently, the influence which rightly belongs to the minister, the Sunday School Superintendent and Sunday School teachers, is left to the shop foreman, the county agent, the home demonstration agent or the man on the street corner. They are the major advisors. And too frequently, their counsel is based upon purely material things.

A few projected influences may now be mentioned. The Church College must continue to produce Christian Leadership. As an organic part of the Church, this is its moral responsibility to the



parent body. In this regard, history speaks with favor. A factual survey of the State of Michigan by Dr. Edward W. Blake-man in 1941 shows that of 48,318 students enrolled in 15 state institutions, 2% were enrolled in the course in Religion. But, of 8,383 students in Church-related Colleges, 50% were enrolled in courses in Religion. For every 70 students enrolled in 7 Protestant Church-Related Colleges, the report continues, one graduate entered a religious vocation, while from the 2 largest State Institutions only 1 graduate for every 7,120 enrolled made such a choice. This report is generally regarded as typical and suggests that the source of Church leadership is 100 to 1 in favor of the Church College.

Let me raise another responsibility. Each annual conference might well set up a definite program of student recruiting in behalf of a trained Church Leadership, Ministerial and Lay. One month, preferably in the spring, should be designated at which time our strongest and most understanding ministers would visit the high schools and present to the students about to graduate the opportunities presented by the ministry and other forms of Christian work. Personal conferences would be held, and every encouragement given students desiring to enter such service to enroll at the Conference's Church College. Medicine, Law, Business, Graduate Schools and others do this. Why shouldn't the Church? This suggests a definite plan of ministerial replacement, without which, there is certain difficulty ahead.

This raises the problem of the relationship to a supporting constituency. A vital relationship must be vigorously maintained and effectively prosecuted through the Administration, Faculty, Students, Trustees, and every agency of the supporting Annual Conferences. Faculty members can serve Churches effectively through their Departments of the College. Students can do summer work in Institutes and Vacation Bible Schools. In the Conference, the Bishop can make real to the ministers the truth that the College is only a specialized agency of production in the Church's total program of service. The Commission on World Service and Finance and the Executive Secretary of the Board of Education can lead the way for adequate Institutional support. The unified program of the Church provides for all such "Forward Together." The Church has the right to demand of the

College adequate leadership. On the other hand, the College has the right to expect the loyalty and support of the Church. What child does not feel the right to ask bread of its mother when hungry, or drink when thirsty? God forbid that the day ever comes when mother and child are estranged. Somehow, the idea of organic wholeness must replace the idea of "separateness" between the Protestant Church and its College. The Catholic faith has been able to maintain organic unity on this point down through the years. May the day hasten when the Church College president can cease to be a watchman of the collection plate while the intellectual and spiritual life of his institution suffers from lack of his best attention.

One more suggestion on Public Relations. The Church College must chart its own course. It must avoid over-publicity and undue fanfare. To imitate the "Joneses" is sheer hypocrisy. By its very nature it must incline towards conservatism. Such course of action provides a broader base for defending its integrity. Innovations should be carefully weighed, and where possible, tried out on a limited scale before large scale acceptance is certified. It is not good that any agency identified with the Church be forced to retreat. Most of all, the superficial, glamorous and simple College incidents should not overshadow the type of information which really interprets the spirit, heart and purpose of the Institution to its supporting Public.

The Church College must take the leadership into an understanding of the world of post-war adjustment ahead of us, when people will be disillusioned and economically dislocated. Their bodies and minds will be worn and torn; their hates and bitterness will be directed upon any object contrary to their own liking. There will be hunger, nakedness and every form of deprivation for a while. Such crises try the soul of man. Moreover, the world will be an enlightened world. Men will tolerate enslavement and exploitation no more. They will insist upon a chance to assume personal responsibility. They will resent regimentation. They will seek a High Idealism to replace their present materialism and force. The shackles of ignorance shall have been loosed and the spirit of Liberty, Fraternity and Equality of opportunity set on fire. Where this spirit is throttled, men will be ruthless and wild. But there is no greater challenge than that

which such crises will afford Christianity. The Church College, as a Christian agency, can make a singular contribution to the actual effectiveness of the Christian way of life in such a post-war world. Christianity in actual practice must become our "Sense of Supreme Destiny" for the living of such days.

A few summary propositions follow. There must be no spirit of "Separateness" between the Church and its College, The Local Church and Christian Higher Education, the Sunday School and the Church College. They are merely segments of the whole. There must be no conflict between the Church College and Public Institutions. They are necessarily complementary, and the argument of "either-or" is replaced by one of "both-and." The major function of the Church College must not be vocational and technical training. This is essentially the function of the State. It is essentially the function of the Church College to train for leadership in its broadest sense. This is fundamentally a moral unity in man. To do this is a ceaseless process of humanizing man, with the spirit of Christ as the center. There has been no time in world history when this function was as sorely needed as now. It means, in the words of Lord Justice Russell, "The narrowing of the domain of force as a governing factor in the world, abhorrence of what is mean and cruel, and vile, a ceaseless devotion to the claims of justice."

The Church College is under obligation to produce leadership for the Church and Christian Community. It must concentrate upon competent faculty, limited curriculum, and a limited student body, based on ability and purpose. The Church faces a definite responsibility in student recruiting for its Church College in the attempt to enroll promising young people out of the local charges. The Church must adequately finance its Colleges as to do otherwise would mean either losing its most powerful single organ, or announcing itself as satisfied with the "inferior" as a permanent status.

I have set forth in general some First Principles for the Church College. What of the Church's program of Higher Institutional Education in Wartime? My answer is, the same as in any other time. Truly, the Church College must do whatever it can to help win the victory. But war is an abnormal time. The Church College must plan for the normal time, making such adjustments

as may be necessary to serve the abnormal times. It must deal with the fundamental and constant, making only such minor changes as are necessary for the total best interest. This has been the guiding philosophy of the Catholic Church. When the Barbarians fell upon Rome and would destroy the Church and its Centers of Learning, the same fundamentals were preserved through more than 400 years of the Dark Ages. When the rise of Nationalism in Europe threatened the Church's Institutions, we find again the preservation of the Faith. This is particularly true of us who constitute the Central Jurisdiction of The Methodist Church. We are now going through a most critical period of our Churchmanship. At the same time, we witness a most critical period in our national and economic life. Like the Disciples of the Master, we find ourselves in the great tempest on the sea of life in which it seems the Master is asleep. We, too, cry, "Lord save us: we perish."

Some say we should close our colleges and go out of business; but to do so would defeat our very purpose. Without them we shall be without our leadership. Moreover, we shall have closed the sources of the liberalizing influences which serve to purify adverse influences which so often creep into public institutions. The other alternative is adequate support in every way for all our colleges. God is not dead. Nothing is impossible. The Master answers our cry: "Oh ye of little faith." Where we shall be 25 years hence will depend upon the kind of leadership we have. We must continue to look to our Church College for Christian leadership. They will survive the present crises. So will all our Protestant Church Colleges if we cease to feel that we are living in history's only difficult age, and all the evils of this world have been kept on cold storage, since the time of Adam, to be rained down wrathfully upon us. What we need is an historical perspective and a dynamic faith.

It must be herewith admitted that my major purpose is to provide a basic theory. Individual techniques and applications will be the responsibility of each Church College and its constituency. I can only testify that much of what I have said has actually worked with surprisingly gratifying success at our own College. Let us be vigilant in spirit. Beware of too many changes in behalf of the immediate and temporal. Make every reasonable,

just and fair effort to serve the immediate contingencies of the war emergency, but beware of efforts to set up a so-called "War Curriculum" in content. I realize the difficulties which such attitude entails. Like the good minister replied to a member who queried him on a Sermon on Social Justice: the preaching is easy but there's where the trouble begins. The Church College presidents are troubled. Like Job, they helplessly see their "all" disappear before their eyes. They see the uprooting of youth of the Church in the fields of Christian Higher Education. They see the handiwork of generations destroyed by the disintegration of competent faculties, the building of which required many years of hard labor and sacrifice. These same losses cannot be replaced.

Our light affliction, which is but for a moment, worketh for us a far more exceeding and eternal weight in glory. Thanks be to God, which giveth us the victory through our Lord Jesus Christ. For in due season, we shall reap, if we faint not. The Church College must prove all things and hold fast to that which is good. It must remain the Intellectual Beacon in a troubled world, the handiwork of God's Church, the Fountain head of trained men and women who love the Lord their God with all their heart and mind, and their fellowmen as themselves. Its fruit and worthiness cannot be fully measured, and not be even reckoned solely in terms of a given period, but rather in terms of the onward and upward march of the Human Family into the Abundant Life assured by the Supreme Destiny towards which all creation moves.



## ON THE CARE AND FEEDING OF COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

BY A MEMBER OF A BOARD OF TRUSTEES

"OUR President tells us our deficit this year is only \$90,000. I'll take care of ten thousand. John you'll do that too I know, and so will Henry and George and Bob . . . and that'll clean that up. What else is on our agenda?"

Legend on the campus of my alma mater has it that some such conversation at board meetings made life cheery for our president. Probably it had some basis in truth for the board was studded with millionaires. But on the small college board on which I serve there's a noticeable chilling of the atmosphere when "deficit" is mentioned.

I look about me. Most of my colleagues are ministers, sainted old warriors of the church, several of whom have been "doctored" by the college. There's a physician or two, a lawyer, a retired farmer, and a few others. But fully half of those whose names flash from the page of the college catalogue devoted to trustees are not present. They rarely are.

Why? College presidents seldom really know. They get the "excuses"—which range the gamut from previous engagements to gas rationing—but, to use James Harvey Robinson's distinction, they seldom learn the "real reasons." They're hard to get at, but by friendly Gallupesque inquiry I have acquired some information which I can pass on.

"Really, why should I attend meetings?" one trustee parried, after a half-hour of conversation had penetrated his suavity. "When I am called to a meeting of any other corporation board, I get an attention-demanding invitation. Perhaps it's a form letter, but it is typewritten and signed. I am informed of our college board meetings through a mimeographed notice, sometimes on a post card. Taking that as an index of the significance of the meeting, I ask myself why I should attach more importance to it than does the president who called it."

Warming to his subject, he knocked the gray off his cigar with an impatient gesture, then went on.

"Furthermore, I've never had an advance memorandum on business to be discussed—an agenda with explanatory documents.



At sessions I've attended the president passes out his typewritten report, then reads it. Next we are handed a mimeographed report from the business manager, but it is so unprofessionally put up that I couldn't digest it even with a careful reading—nor can our C.P.A. to whom I've showed copies. Yet we members are supposed to understand it at a glance—and vote for it, of course. No doubt the president and a committee have gone over it with care, but I dislike being a rubberstamp. If my business judgment is of value to the board, as I was assured it was when I was appointed, why should it be insulted? To put it straight, why shouldn't the business meeting of a college be as businesslike as that of any other corporation dealing with comparable amounts of money?"

That plaint makes a basic pattern in comment of many lukewarm college trustees who will speak their mind.

"I wonder if it is because clergymen aren't often trained in business methods," one trustee confided. "I am the son of a preacher and am proud of it, but I realize that running a college is different from running a church. Why doesn't some denominational Board of Education get out a guide for college presidents and trustees? It could be a small booklet containing a 'model' budget and financial report forms and a detailed, practical statement of duties and responsibilities. Something of this sort would preclude many an acrimonious argument on faculty problems, town-gown relations, and investment policies."

He went on to explain how every position in the business he operates, which has a six-figure annual statement, is charted by a manual. One is put into the hands of each new employee and helps immeasurably in transmitting the lessons of experience to the newcomer, thereby shortening the training period.

"But did you ever hear of a college president having his faculty department heads work up the counterpart of a manual for their jobs?" he asked. "It might be nothing more than a looseleaf notebook of their experiences, records of courses offered, and even comment on outstanding students. But think what a help it would be to a newcomer who, lacking it, must approach his work cold. That illustrates what I mean when I say that colleges don't use the business sense which we must use to acquire the money which they expect us to share."

To David Harum is attributed the remark that "There's as much human nature in some folks as th' is in others, if not more." Could old David have been thinking of college trustees? Several have told me with feeling of scant attention accorded by college presidents to well-intentioned suggestions.

"I spoke up in meeting once," a former securities corporation officer told me with a wry smile. "I questioned a point of budget procedure. What happened? The president drowned me in a sea of words which, if they meant anything meant that ordinary principles of business do not apply to college management. Do you wonder why I don't warm up now? Frankly, I do not relish being treated like a child to be managed. A board ought to be a democratic body where no one takes as a personal reflection any suggestion for the good of the cause that brings us together."

Maybe there was more than a tincture of pique in the comment of another board member, but David Harum would have a different name for it. This man deplored poor "public relations" maintained by the school administration with trustees—a criticism that runs a close second to dissatisfaction with business management.

"In my four years on the campus as a student," he declared, "I would never have known our college has trustees if I hadn't seen their names in the catalogue. Though they all met when school was in session, never were they guests at chapel and introduced to students with an explanation of what they were doing to keep the school hitting on all six."

A corporation branch manager echoed his complaint. "The only time I ever hear from my alma mater is when they want money," he said. "Never a friendly letter from the president. When I go back to the campus I wander lonely as a cloud." He smiled at that, admitting he remembered more English II than he had supposed. "Our clergy tell me they're coldly treated on visits—would welcome a room where they could refresh themselves and write letters when they are in town a few hours. If I handled my salesmen with the arctic aloofness our president uses on his potentially best friends, I probably wouldn't need to pay an income tax this year."

A check-up with trustees reveals a surprisingly large number know little of their schools' backgrounds and traditions. Many

haven't seen college histories. Few are on mailing lists for bulletins and other literature sent to prospective students. Some have never seen their college papers or annuals. I've come across but a handful of small colleges that attempt to build up an intimate, well-informed inner circle—trustees, faculty members, and special friends—by issuing for them a monthly mimeographed newsletter of facts, figures and even personal items. Yet there's almost always someone on a college faculty, if no publicity man is available, who could do the chore and would take pride in doing it well. No well-run business—even though it were far less dependent than a college upon public favor—would overlook such an opportunity to make friends.

It may be a "phony idea," as he himself admitted, but one successful trustee believes that all divinity schools should have a compulsory course in public relations. He makes the point that it would help the ministers in their church work, but his stress falls on colleges because so many presidents are called from pastorates.

"If college presidents had a real sense of public relations," he will argue, "it would make them much more efficient—for most of their work is being public contact men for their institutions. Understanding what it is all about, they then wouldn't be afraid to hire good publicity men—who are fully as important as their deans—and give them rope with which to do things."

This trustee, another son of the parsonage, has a definite conviction that many of the traits that make a preacher successful are a handicap when transferred to a college president's office.

"As preachers," he told me, "they know that often the only way to get a thing done is to do it themselves. They seldom learn how to delegate authority necessary to discharge responsibility. So they distrust their publicity man, if they are so fortunate as to have one, and treat him like a high-grade stenographer. Yet publicity men who know that achievements make news can often come up with suggestions that will prove invaluable to a college. There's a girls' school in the middle west that has won a national reputation among educators largely because its president was smart enough to adopt a few innovations suggested by men he hired to get publicity."

Few college board members with whom I have talked are opposed to pastors becoming presidents of colleges. They accept it

that most schools run by churches will draw on the latter's priesthood for leadership. But many trustees will wish aloud that as the transition from pulpit to office is made the pastor would frankly recognize that he has a new sort of job requiring a different "psychology" and technique.

Not only is he meeting business and professional men in a new relationship, as they work together on the board of trustees, but he must have daily contact with faculty members, who have a strong pride of profession, and students who come to him not as children of a parishioner but as youths who, though their sophistication may be callow, take themselves seriously. An occasional lonely student or a new faculty member, for example, may respond to that excellent pastoral technique of a conference in the bosom of a president's home, but usually better results follow interviews in the president's own office.

Could it be that some college presidents have accepted their position because they are "good jobs"—with pay better than that to which they have been accustomed as pastors, and with more prestige? Could it be that they have not thought through on what justifies the continued existence of the school they head?

Many small colleges labor under an adolescent inferiority complex. Using textbooks authored by big university professors, employing faculty members whose academic distinction has been gained at large schools, they tend to overlook their own potential advantages growing out of their smallness. Is it not apropos to ask how many have well developed personnel programs that follow up a student's personal development from the moment he matriculates to the time he is graduated, and after? And how many schools have dared to blaze new educational trails by developing a student-centered program turning to account the physical, economic, and cultural materials of the region they serve?

Such questions get into the quick of the problem of the small college president's leadership or, more precisely, his relationships with the trustees, faculty, students, alumni, and the public.

The old shibboleths are losing their flavor and "rah rah" doesn't have the appeal it did in halcyon days of peace. College presidents must justify on objective, not sentimental, grounds the continued existence of their schools. If they can't they are

perpetrating a form of intellectual dishonesty which is destined to fail soon or late. One influential layman whose father was a trustee of a church college put it this way: "Just because some good men started a college when this state was a territory is no reason why I should help maintain it. I would if I thought it offered something—including religious influences—my children couldn't get as well or better at the state university. But I don't—so my children are going to the state school."

Those words offer food for thought in unrationed abundance.

With the greatest of ease, one could point with pride to the high achievements through the years of church-related colleges. The nation owes much to them. But laurels wilt easily and quickly. Surely enough panegyrics have been sung in praise of the self-sacrificing college president, and his virtues have been so well publicized as to need no expatiation here. Is it not much more in point to look ahead? To consider, in a spirit of searching but friendly criticism, what should have been done but has not been done?

Small colleges do face a crisis. But let them take a hint from the wise Chinese. The word "crisis" in Chinese becomes two symbols, one meaning "danger," the other "opportunity." The danger comes in meeting new conditions with old ways-of-doing. College presidents whose leadership is compounded of worry and well-worn appeals will sink with their ships. But let there be an objective re-examination of objectives, a will to adapt their institutions to meet the changing needs of students and the people of their communities, and many a school will swing through the post-war period stronger than ever before. Only as their leadership is attuned to the changing times can the small colleges step forward from conceded achievements of the past to do the service that shall bring enrichment to individuals and to their segment of the nation—and thereby elicit the support that is the only guarantee of survival.

## HOW TRUSTWORTHY ARE TRUSTEES

### FRESH WATER

JOE McPHERRIN ran into President Hollis of Marton College just as he started to enter Dr. Bunt's office, and held out a blue covered petition to him and asked, "Will you sign this petition to request the governor to pardon Ben Brown?" Ben Brown had been a director in a small bank in one of the towns out from the county seat and was sentenced to the state prison for two years for violating the banking code. "You know," Joe continued, "Uncle Ben never did anything wrong. He, like the other directors, just trusted the cashier and left the bank's work to him."

Hollis was not impressed with Joe's line but he knew it to be the truth. Ben Brown was not a criminal. He was a small town merchant with a single concern—his own store. He had joined up with a few other men and organized a bank. They went out of the county and hired a man with some banking experience to serve as cashier. Brown, along with the other directors, never made any effort to learn anything about the banking business but left it to the hired cashier. A stranger in a bank without the supplementary guidance of an active board of directors can easily make enough bad loans to ruin a bank. Insolvent, he had continued to receive deposits and the directors were indicted on this count. The people seemed to have no interest in the cashier and were content to let him serve his time; but a long petition asked pardons for directors who were "not guilty." Hollis, as president of the local college, had passed up enough such requests in the few years he had been there for McPherrin to accept this decision without any questions. When he finished his errand he returned to his own office musing over the incident.

The whole episode reminded Hollis of some of his own experiences with college trustees. They had elected him to his office; but, like the directors, never took time to learn anything about the intricacies of college administration. Like most presidents, he had a free rein in his work and could go along undisturbed until he made a number of obvious mistakes and then an outraged



Board would ask for his resignation. He had been elected by the trustees to run the college and it was up to him.

There were 30 trustees on the Board of Marton College. Several of them were men of wealth, placed there as an act of faith. Maybe some day they would make a nice gift for Marton. The church elected nine of its ministers and nine laymen to membership on the Board. The ministerial berths often were captured by a few honor seekers who used the recognition as stepping stones in their upward climb for ecclesiastical preference. The alumni elected a few members. Most of them were recent graduates who had transferred their interest in campus life to alumni activities. Then there was the indispensable "old guard"—the local group who just about ran the college. They were interested in it as the number one community asset. Of course they appreciated the cultural and spiritual advantages of an educational institution, but they always appeared most familiar with its economic connotations. They had learned that it took a steady flow of money in the community to keep the wheels going around, and they had figured out just how much the college contributed annually to that stream. Also, Marton College usually made good news copy for the town. When its football team went through two seasons undefeated, Marton made the sport page of every daily in the United States. "It is great to live in a town," Marton advertised, "where there is a college."

The pardon petition set Hollis to reviewing the president-trustee relationships. He was sure that his trustees were good men and, in varying degrees, concerned about the college. His relations with them seldom were strained and in general pleasantly congenial. Sometimes he was flattered by a trustee's bragging about the good fortune of the college having him for its president. It was evident that Marton's trustees believed in their president and were proud of his achievements. "But," Hollis mused, "how much farther up the road we would have been if the trustees could have always assumed their pro rata share of the college's responsibilities."

When he begun the work at the college, he found that the modest endowment of the institution was invested to produce the largest possible returns. Bonds had been purchased that paid 6 to 6½%. The safety of the principal had become secondary to

the desire for a high yield for current income. Among the recommendations before the Board at their annual meeting where he made his first report was the immediate investigation of some doubtful bond issues. But that year some of the ministerial trustees had gotten together and decided that what the college needed was a finance agent. All other business was subordinated during that session of the Board to this item. There was available a minister of a large church in the state who had confided to some of the brethren that he would make a "sacrifice" to serve the college. He was employed and started out to raise a million. Incidentally, a critical pastoral problem was solved in a lay trustee's church and a number of ministers raised their prestige and salary several points by this wide open vacancy. The bonds defaulted, the endowment dropped to a pitiful low, and the money raiser barely got enough to pay his own salary and office expenses. If one were to ask why Marton College had a hard time during the thirties, a reason beyond any question would be given—the depression. Yet Hollis knew that if the personal interest of a few of his trustees had not side-tracked his recommendation on doubtful bond issues that the college would have gone through the thirties with fewer financial scars.

At the time Hollis was elected president, college practices were being scrutinized and evaluated. He himself had studied the handling of endowment funds and felt that some changes were needed in the investment policies of the school. He advised the college not to loan any of its money to a person or organization from whom it would prove an embarrassment to collect. He also believed that no trustee should profit, personally, by any financial transaction of the endowment fund. The whole investment program should be approached objectively and administered with the sole aim of keeping the principal intact. Looking back over the years, Hollis recalled the many pressures that were upon the investment committee to deviate from the announced policy. The synod's hospital was having a hard time and needed at least \$25,000 to pull it through. There was a first mortgage of \$19,000 on the property, but was not the hospital worth at least \$60,000? Why should not one institution of the church help another when in need? Hollis' opposition injured the influence of the college in the neighborhood. They resented his saying to

the Board of Trustees that the college could not afford to donate \$25,000 to the synod's hospital!

The president of the local bank was on the investment committee. He knew how to manage a small town bank so that it would make money, but admitted that he was not an expert on stocks and bonds. The college president faced a most difficult problem here. He knew that the business men of his executive committee were close associates of the banker, and in more than one way they were dependent upon him. If the issue were forced they would vote to keep the investments in the local bank. Cautiously he discussed the whole matter with the banker and, fortunately for the institution, the banker took the initiative in transferring the account to the trust department of a bank equipped to handle the investments.

The keeping of the principle that no one connected with the management of the college should profit from the handling of its invested funds, required constant vigilance. There were mortgages to be made and sometimes real estate to be sold. Once when there were some lots sold he suspected that the price paid was below what the college should have had. Later it became evident that the real estate firm in which a trustee was interested had made a very sizeable profit in the transaction. He also had heard it said in the community that the bank had sometimes slipped over to the college's account doubtful mortgages, but he had found no evidence of such practices.

Several years afterward the college was reviewed by a committee from the accrediting agency and the constituents and trustees alike were happy over their commendatory remarks about the college's sound financial policy. But inwardly Hollis shuddered for the college. So often he had observed that some of his hesitant trustees had to be pulled along when they were inclined to temporize.

The destiny of any college may be determined by its trustees. Marton College was profiting from the good guidance that the president was able to obtain from educational experts. Now its modest endowment was in the hands of the trust division of a reputable bank. Nearby Coppin College, that once had overshadowed Marton with its greater resources and larger student body, was barely limping along. It had kept a president who

had given splendid leadership through a period, but later had settled down to enjoy life as a citizen of the town. He avoided unpleasant decisions, filled faculty vacancies without adequate investigation, and left major administrative matters to a small uninformed committee. The trustees detected that their college was slipping, but times, they reasoned, were not propitious for college growth. When some of them discerned that the president's day of usefulness had ended they hesitated, because of his past service, to make any move to retire him. After a short illness, death solved their problem and the trustees elected his successor. But the college had lost its leadership in its own area and was not able to recover its lost prestige. Hollis wondered if his trustees would meet the personnel issue when he was no longer effective; would they, like other trustees, avoid unpleasant problems?

Marton College had the local pastor on its Board and his Sunday School superintendent was a professor at the college. In fact, he was the most active churchman in the community. His services at the college, however, were decidedly second rate. He held an instructorship but Hollis did not feel that his work warranted advancement. Maybe for the college's own good he should have been dismissed, but he was a borderline case—too poor to keep and too good to fire. When a vacancy occurred in his department the pastor trustee insisted that his Sunday School superintendent be promoted. The teacher, bolstered by his pastor's concern, asked for the advancement and informed the president that unless he was promoted he would have to resign. When he was taken at his word and permitted to resign he appealed to the trustees. Hollis faced a major crisis in his Board. He had always insisted that the president should have the right to nominate his faculty and up to the present that power had been granted without hesitation. To deviate now from the professional standard established might destroy them. After a vote had been taken the president was sustained, but Hollis never forgot the experience. It had clearly revealed to him how deeply personal likes and dislikes determine the make-up of a college faculty. Fortunately for him, the local pastor had not been a popular leader. Had he been, it is likely that another piece of dead wood would have been kept indefinitely on the instructional staff. Often a mediocre faculty

member engrossed with community activities such as work in a service club, with the Scouts or Sunday School, can cover up his campus shortcomings. Hollis wondered when trustees will understand that the first interest of the college should be the welfare of its students.

The community in which Marton was located was pretty one-sided politically. It had just about enough democrats to serve as election officers and fill government positions during a democratic administration. In a community where there was a better balanced representation a teacher could express himself on political issues without embarrassment to either himself or the administration. The "profs" at Marton knew how far wise discretion allowed them to go, but occasionally a political leader would grow restive over some remark made by a teacher. Sometimes the teacher would be damned as a dangerous radical.

Hollis respected the sincerity of the town's population, but he knew that an educational institution had the right to view all sides of controversial questions. His faculty was expected to be prudent, yet sincere and honest. Frequently their views clashed with some of the traditional ones in the community, but when the local political organization had a faculty member arrested for disturbing a public meeting, he knew that his sparring days were over. In the question period, the professor asked a question of a political spell binder who specialized in generating heat and not in diffusing light. His question, after all, was an "argument" for the opposition. The prosecuting attorney said that charges would be dropped if the professor would resign and leave town. That compromise satisfied two trustees who had previously concluded that the teacher was a nuisance and should be fired. "But," Hollis asked, "what will happen to the morale of the faculty and the prestige of the college if minority views are completely suppressed?" Ex-governor Wilson, a respected party man who had retired from politics, told the president to be adamant and volunteered to secure the teacher's release. The ex-governor's prestige saved the college from the bigotry of blind partisanship, but whenever there was a controversial issue, theological, social, economic, Hollis longed to feel that he had the unquestioned support of trustees who believed that the right to think and let think was a college inviolable.



Marton's trustees wanted the college to be a great school. The school needed several new buildings and substantial additions to its endowment fund. For these they always looked beyond their own town to people of wealth and influence miles away. Whenever the topic was brought up in Board meetings the trustees would intimate that the president's chief job was to get money. One day during the meeting of the executive committee there was much animated conversation about raising money. The committee had on it several wealthy local citizens. All seemed to be agreed that Hollis should go to New York on a fund raising campaign, but he hesitated and finally asked why the gifts for a greater Marton shouldn't start right there in the local community. "New York friends will never be impressed," he said, "with the worthwhileness of our educational program until our own citizens show their faith in their project." He knew that local citizens could start the financial ball rolling. The banker, a man of large wealth, sat with a far-away look in his eyes. Someone cleared the atmosphere by making a motion to adjourn. When they got outside, Mark Collins, who had been secretary of the Board for more than a generation, sidled up to Hollis and said, "I believe if Richardson and Perkins would loosen up and give \$100,000 each, some big money from the East would come our way." "You have the idea," Hollis said, "trustees are always looking beyond themselves for financial movements to start. If they believe in their college and would lead off with some big gifts, others are going to be impressed." "Frankly," he continued, "if Marton is not good enough to send our children to or to invest our money in, what right have we to ask others to do what we will not. You will ease the president's job of getting money from strangers if you yourselves start."

Hollis continued to think about Ben Brown, the convicted bank director. Was the whole matter to be dismissed with a wave of the hand or the signing of a pardon? Brown, he reasoned, had accepted the trusteeship of the people's funds and had personally obligated himself to protect them. He might hire the cashier, but he couldn't dismiss with that act the responsibility of seeing that the bank was sound financially.

In the quietness of his office Hollis soliloquized, "My trustees are my boss, and I, as president of Marton, need a boss. I want



to feel that my boss knows a spurious college from a sound one. I want my boss to regard his work as a trustee to be a sacred trust bestowed upon him by the givers of consecrated money. I want him to catch the purpose and spirit of the institution and to believe that its service to aspiring and promising youth is one of the world's necessities. I want my boss to feel that the task of building an educational institution is a cooperative one; and if I, the leader, am sentenced to exile for my shortcomings, I want my trustees to be honorable enough to ask for no pardons for their failures, but to share oblivion with me."

## PARTIALITY FAVORS ONE PART

CHARLES E. DIEHL  
PRESIDENT, SOUTHWESTERN

**R**ELIGION and education belong together. They are separated at the peril of both, not to speak of the peril to society. Religion without education tends to result in erroneous ideas and to develop undesirable traits and tendencies. It is apt to degenerate into superstition, narrowness, fanaticism, sentimentalism, foolish practices, prejudice and bigotry. Education without religion tends to develop a trained intellect, but with little or no reference to ethical or spiritual values, without which there is no worthy purpose in life. The better educated a scoundrel is, the more of menace he becomes. It is the difference between knowledge and wisdom. Tennyson said: "Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers." It takes more than knowledge to make us wise. As someone has said: "Wisdom involves spiritual insight, integrity of character, an understanding love of things worth loving, a scale of values that puts first things first, loyalties to which one's soul is given, all unified by a philosophy of life that puts worthwhile meaning and purpose into living. Only such attributes of the spirit ever yet made man wise."

We have pinned our faith to education in this country, as no other nation on earth has ever done. Horace Mann said in his report as Secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education that the American tradition of education was necessary to the "well being of all the people," that without it, "though all mankind were well fed, well clothed, and well housed, they might still be half civilized." American civilization has been built upon liberal education, an education not only available to all the people, but one founded upon the ideal of Christianity and democracy—truth, honesty, justice and sympathy—which have been the goals towards which man has ever been striving.

It is the secularization of education which has brought us to our present sad plight. By secularization we mean life that is organized and planned without taking God into account. Unfortunately, education came to be regarded as the panacea for every

problem. This idea was due largely to the experience of men who saw the results of higher education in the early days of the church college when religion and education were joined together. Men did not seem to realize that education without religion is a very different matter, and may result in positive disaster. They attributed to the magic of education alone that which can be realized only when religion and education are combined. The secularization of education developed with amazing rapidity. The religious aim was supplanted by the modern gods of efficiency and practical utility. The emphasis came to be laid upon material rather than moral training, and a system of education has been developed which equips men for scientific, mechanical and agricultural pursuits rather than for high moral ideals and for high moral character. We must come again to regard the development of the spiritual life as a fundamental part of the educational process, for the supreme need of the world is moral manhood and womanhood. The great need of our land is an intelligent spiritual leadership. The grave problems of the future will be solved by men and women who are mentally sound and morally straight.

## AMONG THE COLLEGES

**ALFRED UNIVERSITY** has just received from anonymous friends a cash gift of \$40,000 to be used in tiding the Institution over the financial crisis common to so many colleges and universities in these difficult times, or for any other use the Board of Trustees may designate.

**BRIDGEWATER COLLEGE** has received by bequest the library of Dr. W. J. Showalter, former chief of the division of research of the National Geographic Magazine, a position he had held since 1914. He was an alumnus of Bridgewater.

**DAVIS AND ELKINS COLLEGE** has recently received coal land and other property from the H. M. and Susan Darby estate valued at \$50,000 and an anonymous gift of \$2,000 for the establishment of a scholarship loan fund.

**ELMIRA COLLEGE** has recently issued in printed form a Manual for the freshman course in Contemporary Civilization which is impressive. It has 12 sections covering the cultural contributions of the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans and the various periods since the fall of the Roman Empire.

**HAMILTON COLLEGE** has received a bequest of \$150,000 from the estate of William C. Winslow, Episcopal clergyman and archaeologist of Boston. The gift will be used for the establishment of a Winslow professorship of Science. The donor was an Alumnus of the class of 1862 and was responsible for the Boston Museum's Egyptian collection.

**HOOD COLLEGE** celebrated its Semicentennial on October 8-10, 1943. The speakers included Dean Margaret Morriss of Pembroke College, Governor Herbert R. O'Connor of Maryland, Professor Elmer George Homrighausen of Princeton Theological Seminary and Guy E. Snavely, Executive Director, Association of American Colleges.

**LA VERNE COLLEGE** brought its Debt Reduction Campaign to a successful conclusion by the end of its fiscal year, last June 30th, and completed paying off obligations which four years before had totaled nearly \$83,000.

**OBERLIN COLLEGE** has been given the Golden Pavilion of Jehol, a reproduction of the Lama temple erected in that Manchurian royal city about 175 A. D., as a repository for Oriental art and an educational center for far-eastern studies. The temple was exhibited at both the Chicago and New York World's Fairs. It is hoped that the gift will be recognized as a gesture of friendliness to China and that it constitutes the first step toward founding in Oberlin a department of far-eastern affairs.

**OBERLIN COLLEGE** has shown commendable initiative through the distribution to its civilian Freshmen of a well-written pamphlet on "How to Get Along in the Service." The author is an Alumnus, Sergeant F. W. Holbein, Headquarters I Bomber Command.

**PHILANDER SMITH COLLEGE** has received gifts totaling \$20,525 since March, 1943. Sources of the gifts are as follows: \$4,500 from the Little Rock and North Arkansas Conferences (white); \$4,100 from the Business Men of Little Rock sponsored by the Lions Club; \$2,000 from the District Conferences of the Columbus Area (colored); The Board of Education in a special appropriation of \$6,100. The major portion of these funds were contributed to provide approximately \$16,000 in basic repairs and improvement to college buildings.

**THE PRINCETON UNIVERSITY FUND** received for the year ending June 30, 1943, contributions totaling \$117,020, contributed by 5,558 alumni—one quarter of the alumni body. Including gifts and bequests for specific purposes, Princeton received during the year a total of \$3,386,781.53.

**WASHINGTON COLLEGE** at Chestertown, Md., announces a gift to the Library of \$600, by Mrs. Frank M. Dick, Vice-President of the National Society of the D. A. R., and a bequest

of \$1,750 by Mrs. C. W. Reid, wife of Dr. C. W. Reid, who was President of the College, 1889-1903. Mrs. Dick's gift is added to her original endowment of \$2,000 for the Elisha Cullen Dick Memorial reading room, established in honor of Dr. Dick, personal physician of George Washington.

**WAYNE UNIVERSITY** has received a grant of \$100,000 from the Kresge Foundation toward the establishment of the Kresge-Hooker Scientific Library. Other individuals and organizations have contributed a similar amount for the purchase of the Hooker Scientific Library located in Central College in Missouri.

**WELLS COLLEGE** observed the seventy-fifth anniversary of its founding on October 15, 1943, with Professor Marjorie Hope Nicolson, President of the Phi Beta Kappa, as the chief speaker.



## NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

- Carthage College, Carthage, Illinois. Erland Nelson, head of department of psychology and education, Newberry College, Newberry, S. C.
- College of St. Catherine, St. Paul, Minnesota. Sister Antonius Kennelly.
- College of St. Scholastica, Duluth, Minnesota. Sister M. Athanasius Braegelman.
- Connecticut College for Women, New London, Connecticut. Dorothy Schaffter, professor of political science, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.
- Defiance College, Defiance, Ohio. Harold Dana Hopkins, professor of speech and head of the department, Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio.
- Dunbarton College of Holy Cross, Washington, D. C. Sister Mary Frederick, former dean of studies, St. Mary's College, Notre Dame, Indiana.
- Emmanuel Missionary College, Berrien Springs, Michigan. Alvin W. Johnson, dean and business manager, Pacific Union College, Angwin, California.
- Hampton Institute, Hampton, Virginia. Ralph Parkhurst Bridgman, dean of men, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn, New York.
- Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. Raymond M. Clark (acting).
- Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois. Ernest A. Johnson, acting president.
- Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin. Ralph J. Watts (acting).
- Marywood College, Scranton, Pennsylvania. Sister M. Sylvia.
- Ohio University, Athens. W. S. Gamertsfelder, dean, graduate school.
- Oklahoma College for Women, Chickasha, Oklahoma. C. Dan Procter.
- Radeliffe College, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Wilbur K. Jordan, associate professor of English history, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.
- Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois. Sister Mary Peter Doyle, dean.

- St. Peter's College, Jersey City, New Jersey. Vincent J. Hart, rector, St. Francis Xavier Church, New York, New York.
- State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania. James G. Morgan, dean and acting president.
- State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota. Arthur T. French (acting), head of department of mathematics.
- Transylvania College, Lexington, Kentucky. Leland A. Brown (acting), dean. (President Raymond F. McLain is on leave in Naval Reserve.)
- Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut. Arthur H. Hughes (acting), dean.
- University of Denver, Denver, Colorado. Ben M. Cherrington, Director, Social Science Foundation, University of Denver.
- Virginia State College for Negroes, Ettrick, Virginia. Luther H. Foster, treasurer-business manager.
- Waldorf College, Forest City, Iowa. The Reverend Morton O. Nilssen, pastor, St. Paul Lutheran Church, Villa Park, Illinois.
- Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut. Victor L. Butterfield, acting president.
- Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina. Mowat G. Fraser (acting).

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